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**PLASMASPHERIC MODELING STUDIES,  
SUBSTORM RESPONSE MODELING AND  
PLANETARY WAVE SIGNATURES**

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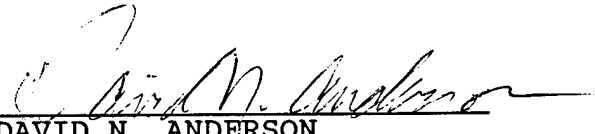
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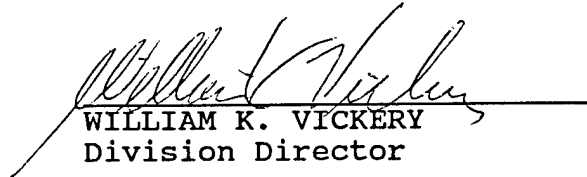
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# PLASMASPHERIC MODELING STUDIES

## SUBSTORM RESPONSE MODELING

## AND PLANETARY WAVE SIGNATURES

### 1. PLASMASPHERIC MODELING

The Parameterized Real-time Ionospheric Specification Model (hereafter, PRISM) has been developed over recent years (Daniell et al., 1995) to provide accessible and updateable descriptions of the global ionosphere, by means of parameterizations of theoretical model runs and a set of algorithms that allow the incorporation of any available real-time observations. However, an existing limitation with the model is that it lacks a plasmaspheric specification. That is, the component theoretical models have not included the effects and descriptions of the light ions,  $H^+$  and  $He^+$ . Much of the ionospheric work performed this year has involved adapting an existing plasmaspheric model for this purpose (requiring consistency with PRISM) and of studies into the nature of the numerical solutions for the derived ion densities (this latter ensuring the stability and physical reliability of the results).

The model originally described by Bailey and Sellek (1990) and recently updated in Bailey et al. (1993) is well-suited to this study, in that it affords a model plasmaspheric specification with many of the same inputs that are used in the GTIM.

The Bailey model derives densities and ion temperatures by means of numerical solutions to the continuity, momentum and energy equations. The ions considered within the model are  $O^+$ ,  $H^+$ ,  $He^+$ ,  $N_2^+$ ,  $O_2^+$  and  $NO^+$ , with density solutions being sought in turn for each ion in that order (specified along magnetic field lines). The model runs from the same base altitude used in the GTIM and extends to the plasmopause. As the model begins without a plasmasphere, a number of simulated days are required for convergence in the  $H^+$  and  $He^+$  densities (essentially filling the plasmasphere; this can be likened to the

refilling of the plasmasphere following a magnetic storm).

With regard to adapting and validating this model for the purposes of the PRISM extension, the following points need to be established.

(1) That the same sets of input are used that have been agreed upon in unifying the various component models of PIM/PRISM. This has a number of components.

- verifying that the reaction rates and cross-sections are the same.

- verifying that the same sets of "fudge factors" are applied to the equations in the same fashion.

- verifying that model inputs, such as the thermosphere come from the same version of the model, and that they are used in the same fashion.

(2) That in the case of an  $O^+$ -only ionosphere, the results from the numerical solutions agree as much as possible with those from the GTIM (the model specifying  $O^+$  in PRISM).

(3) That the effects of inclusion of the other ions (principally the light ions,  $H^+$  and  $He^+$  are physically consistent within the code and the results can be validated against available observations.

These points are discussed in turn in each of the following three sections. Comparisons of model runs are made for the developmental code, referred to as the PRISM-Bailey (or PB) model, to each of the original Bailey model and the GTIM. The conditions for the comparisons presented herein are March equinox, solar moderate and magnetically quiet conditions, for longitude  $290^\circ E$ . Commonly, contour plots of profile summary parameters derived from multi-L-shell runs are used, but also presented here are a number of parameters of interest along the  $L=1.05$  fieldline (this L shell passes through/near the highest values of  $N_{max}$  seen in the contour plots, and thus is an effective means of monitoring the changes).

## 1.1 Inputs to the Model

This section contains a list of the changes made to the Bailey code in developing a version (PRISM-Bailey) that is consistent with the GTIM.

Firstly, the following cross-sections have been changed from the Bailey model to the PRISM-Bailey model.

- the  $O^+$ -O collision cross-section
- photoionization cross-sections for O
- photoabsorption cross-sections for O,  $N_2$  and  $O_2$ .

Secondly, there are a number of fudge factors applied to any theoretical model to provide the numerical solutions with a degree of rigidity. Some of these have also been changed in the development of the PRISM Bailey code.

- changing the critical solar zenith angles that flag twilight and nighttime conditions for consistency with the GTIM

- changing the “diffusion fudge factor”, a value added to the neutral O density when deriving ion-neutral collision frequencies; this value effectively sets an upper limit to diffusion of ions along fieldlines

- allowing changes to a bottomside altitude up to which checks are made for unstable solutions (and below which chemical equilibrium is assumed).

It also eventuated that some mathematical expressions for analytically evaluated quantities needed to be changed.

- the expression for the divergence of  $V_{||}$
- geometric scale factors for the optical depth calculations
- to avoid numeric underflows, pre- and post-multiplication by factors of  $10^{10}$  was included in deriving optical depths

- the altitude marking the apex of the L-shell being considered was fixed in the manner of the GTIM, to ensure that the locations along the fieldline would be the same and thereby facilitating fieldline-oriented comparisons between models.

It is also important to point out that there is an additional fundamental difference to the Bailey and GTIM solutions, in that the former normalizes the momentum term in the continuity equation to the cross-sectional area of the flux tube. As this is not done in the GTIM model, the equations in the PRISM Bailey code have been reformulated accordingly, although the solution method applied to the revised arrays of coefficients (see the next section) is the same.

Finally, a number of model inputs have been altered in the PRISM Bailey code to ensure consistency with PRISM.

- generalization of the usage of  $\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}$  drift patterns to allow usage of the same files prepared for the PRISM grid

- replacing the section that determines electron and ion temperatures from the heat balance equations with the simple model (Brace and Theis, 1981) preferred in PRISM

- providing solar flux input that can be used by the Bailey model but that is derived from the Hinteregger et al. (1981) flux model preferred in PRISM

- extending the wavelength range considered to most nearly match that used in the GTIM

- nighttime production is changed to the method used in the GTIM

- secondary O photoionization is changed to the method used in the GTIM

- deriving thermospheric winds from the HWM-87 (Hedin et al., 1988) rather than the HWM-90 (Hedin et al., 1991)

- using an input value of solar flux, rather than one appropriate to a designated epoch

- using the Bailey code with a dipole magnetic field, and a North Pole consistent with the value used in the GTIM.

## 1.2 The nature of $O^+$ solutions

Each model under consideration here, the original Bailey, the PRISM Bailey, and the GTIM, derives  $O^+$  density solutions in the same basic manner; that is, by substituting an expression for the momentum equation for that ion into the continuity equations and then expressing the resultant equation in finite-differences. There are, however, some differences between the Bailey and GTIM solutions that need to be discussed here.

The Bailey code determines a solution for the ion density,  $N_i$ , with respect to the along-the-fieldline variable  $q$  ( $q = R_E^2 \cos(\theta)/r^2$ , where  $\theta$  is the magnetic colatitude), that is fully implicit in nature, with the use of a tridiagonal matrix solution method. In the GTIM, a solution is determined for the variable  $G$ , where  $N = Y \cdot G$  [ $Y = \int^r \frac{mg}{k(T_e + T_i)}$ , with the latter being a solution to the diffusion operator so that  $G$  becomes constant at high altitudes], with respect to the along-the-fieldline variable  $X$  (a transformation of  $q$  that is evenly-spaced), and that is of a Crank-Nicholson type, using a recursive solution type. These differences are relevant to the discussion of results that follows.

As it became evident that some differences in derived densities did result from the nature of the solution, two separate versions of the PRISM-Bailey (PB) code evolved. The first, PB-Bailey (or PB-B) uses the input parameters described in the previous section for the PRISM Bailey code, but retains the Bailey-like solution type. The second, PB-GTIM (or PB-G) uses the abovementioned inputs but bases the solution on a GTIM-like solution, in which all the same coefficient arrays are formed and the exact same type of solution to the GTIM is sought.

In making comparisons we are therefore looking for the following:

- the differences between the original Bailey code and the GTIM, as they reflect the “before” and “after” results of the PRISM Bailey code
- the differences between the PB-G and GTIM codes, as they reflect the degree to which the PRISM-related changes have not been successfully incorporated
- the differences between the PB-B and PB-G, as they reflect the degree to which the results are sensitive to the type of numerical solution being sought.

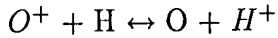
Let us begin discussion with Figure 1, wherein contours of  $N_{\max}$  are shown for the four models described above, in the situation where both thermospheric winds and  $\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}$  drifts are switched off. It should also be stressed here that the original Bailey model results are based on the default Bailey diffusion fudge factor of  $10^{14}$ , rather than the GTIM value of  $10^{12}$ . This is owing to the fact that the numerical results are not stable in the original Bailey code using the lower value. A large degree of agreement between the model results is apparent, both qualitatively and quantitatively.

Compare these results with those in Figure 2, where now the winds and drifts have been activated in a normal (climatological) sense. The agreement between the GTIM and PB-G models is seen to remain intact in the presence of the various transport terms in the equations. The improvement in physical description of the anomaly region over the original Bailey code is also apparent. What is disturbing in the context of the PRISM Bailey code is the difference between the PB-G and PB-B solutions. Although the general trends in  $N_{\max}$  are very similar, there are clear quantitative differences between the two solutions, especially around the post-sunset increase in the equatorial anomaly where  $N_{\max}$  differs by around 30%. This is purely related to the nature of solution, as inputs (i.e., physical conditions) in the two PRISM Bailey versions are identical (indeed, it is this difference that required the generation of PB-G and PB-B models). Investigations are ongoing into the underlying cause of these differences.

### 1.3 The effects of other ions

In this section, we discuss how the solution for additional ions (here, the light ions) is implemented in the Bailey code, and we give significant attention to the resultant effects on the derived  $O^+$  densities.

To begin with,  $H^+$  is included. This ion density solution is sought in the same tridiagonal matrix fashion to the finite difference version to the continuity equation for  $H^+$ . In the Bailey formalism, this solution is sought following the derived solution for the  $O^+$  densities. No iteration to converged densities is sought. The only source for  $H^+$  is through the charge exchange reaction



and this reaction also becomes an additional loss term for the  $O^+$  ions.

Around the F2-peak altitude, this additional loss term is quite significant and effects are quite apparent on Nmax values derived when  $H^+$  has been included. Figure 3 presents the solutions derived for Nmax under these circumstances (except for the GTIM that contains no H effects), to be contrasted with the results in Figure 2. However, there is no production of  $H^+$  at these altitudes. This important point is best demonstrated in fieldline plots. Figure 4 presents  $O^+$  densities along the L=1.05 fieldline at eight different Local Times for the PB-G run, both without (solid line) and with (dotted line) inclusion of the  $H^+$  ion. Drops of 20% in the evening Nmax value are seen. Figure 5 shows the production of  $H^+$  on the same horizontal scale and clearly there is very little compared to the loss of  $O^+$ . This happens because the solutions to  $O^+$  and  $H^+$  densities are sought sequentially, rather than interdependently, making it possible for ions to be lost from one place without being formed in the other. Specific to O-H charge exchange, it is the loss rates that give rise to this inconsistency. Firstly, the  $O^+$  solution is sought with a loss rate increased by around 20%, and smaller densities result. Then, the  $H^+$  solutions is found, but owing to a



very rapid reverse reaction rate, none of it is retained at  $N_{\max}$  altitudes. Figure 6 contrasts the loss rates to  $O^+$  and  $H^+$  respectively, with  $\beta(H^+)$  seen to be far greater. Physically, no  $H^+$  will form at 300km, but sequential ion solutions allow the loss of  $O^+$  to occur. A means of accounting for the rapid reverse reaction in the charge exchange loss term for  $O^+$  is currently under development. A simple method would be to scale the rate by  $\exp(-\beta(H^+)\delta T)$ , to allow for the amount of  $H^+$  that can effectively be formed over a time step of  $\delta T$ , allowing for a potentially rapid reverse reaction.

The same correction will not be required for the  $He^+$  ion, because no charge exchange with  $O^+$  occurs. Production of  $He^+$  occurs through direct photoionization and so consistency of ion solutions should not be an issue. However, recent observational studies (reported in the 1994 Fall AGU Meeting, in San Fransisco, CA) have demonstrated that  $He^+$  densities can be quite significant and can in winter, nighttime conditions dominate the topside of the ionosphere. Qualitatively, this will also form part of the validation of the PRISM-Bailey model, prior to generating a model plasmaspheric grid. Developmentally, it means that attention must be given to the derived  $He^+$  densities. The original Bailey code, however, demonstrates a degree of coupling between the  $O^+$  and  $He^+$  ions that leads to unphysical asymmetries in the densities of the latter. An example of this, in fieldline domain, is shown in Figure 7, for  $L=1.50$  and a longer run (five simulated days). The asymmetries in the densities are evident and are seen to increase with each simulated day of the model run. These two ions will need to be largely decoupled in order to provide a realistic description of  $He^+$  densities. This could be achieved either by reducing the relevant cross-section or by altering the He ion temperature.

A series of observations designed to support the validation effort of this model topside specification has been instigated at Millstone Hill, MA. Further topside validation can come from the growing database of in-situ densities measured by DMSP satellites orbiting at an

altitude of 840km.

## 2. SUBSTORM MODELING

Ionospheric modeling diagnostic work has continued on the nature of TEC disturbances measured at two middle and lower latitude sites (Kennedy Space Center, FL and Ramey, PR) in the American longitude (75°W) and one middle latitude site, Florence, Italy (7°E). A map showing the geographical locations of these sites (including the Hamilton site in which TEC data were also obtained and analysed) is given in Figure 8.

A daytime ionospheric disturbance pattern was identified by case analyses, for middle and lower latitudes at both longitudes during substorms. A positive ionospheric TEC response corresponding to substorm expansion periods, then a depletion or negative response as activity subsides. This TEC disturbance pattern can evolve into a diurnal double maxima (DDM) phenomenon (Pi et al., 1993), if sequential, isolated substorms occur during the daytime. Observations show that this basic pattern can occur at longitudes that differ by at least five hours. Figure 9 gives examples of the TEC disturbance patterns at the two longitudes.

The GTIM was used to model background ionospheric conditions first. As one of the model input parameters, the thermospheric neutral wind model, HWM87, was replaced by HWM90 which is based on the measurements using satellites, incoherent scatter radars (ISRs), and Fabry-Perot interferometers (FPIs), and gives altitude dependence of winds (Hedin et al., 1991). With the new wind model, the GTIM gives slightly higher (about  $\leq 5\%$ ) TEC values than those based on the HWM87. For the case of July 1982, the model run with monthly mean conditions gave TEC values higher than the observations at all three sites. The input meridional wind magnitudes were then adjusted to match the monthly mean TEC values. The required wind adjustments were about 50 m/s, poleward during daytime and equatorward during nighttime.

In the model study, longitudinal comparisons were made for the required electric fields and TADs (assumed to be induced by substorms) that might produce the TEC disturbance patterns observed in different local time sectors. The intention was to distinguish possible global characteristics that may exist in either electric fields or TADs.

The GTIM was next run with both wind and electric field adjustments, the goal being to match the observed TEC variations. It was found that the model was able to simulate the disturbances with both winds and electric fields, and required magnitudes of winds and electric fields were in a reasonable range (about 50 m/s for winds and 1 mV/m for electric fields) that is consistent with observations under active magnetic conditions. Figures 10 and 11 show the results of TEC disturbance simulations and required electric fields and winds at the three sites. The major differences of the modeling between the effects of winds and electric fields were obtained from the modeling work. For instance, the required winds do not show significant local time differences and are thus inconsistent with previous and recent modeling studies of substorm-induced wind disturbances and TADs by others.

The modeling of electrodynamical effects reveals that, within the longitudes investigated here, the amplitudes of the required electric field disturbances appear to be smaller near dawn and dusk than those in other daytime sectors. This is consistent with a simplified dawn-dusk oriented magnetospheric electric field pattern. The latitudinal gradient of the required electric field magnitudes also shows a consistency with the basic penetration and overshielding assumption, in which the magnitudes decrease toward lower latitudes. However, there are also major uncertainties with the electrodynamic mechanism. Chief among these are penetration and overshielding durations that are inconsistent with past modeling results obtained in the work of Spiro et al. (1988). Recent evidence of substorm effects in the middle-latitude ionosphere by Buonsanto and Foster (1993) shows that a single mechanism may not dominate in each substorm event, and a more complete

picture of substorm disturbance mechanisms may be drawn if the interplay between magnetospheric electric fields and neutral winds is better understood.

Case-study modeling scenarios implied that perhaps a single mechanism, such as magnetospheric electric field penetration and overshielding effects, or TADs, or disturbance dynamo effects may not be adequate for individual events. Each of these mechanisms may dominate at times and their separation is a difficult problem. A more complete view of the ionospheric response to substorms at middle and lower latitudes awaits further studies that use a mixture of disturbance sources.

A paper entitled

Longitudinal Effects of Ionospheric Responses to Substorms at Middle and Lower Latitudes: A Case Study, by Xiaoqing Pi, Michael Mendillo, Paolo Spalla, and David N. Anderson,

was accepted for publication by *Annale Geophysicae*.

To examine the results obtained via TEC data analyses and modeling studies, a comprehensive data set was analysed, which was obtained during an experimental campaign coordinated by Xiaoqing Pi, using multi-diagnostic techniques in October 1992. The techniques involved three incoherent scatter radar facilities (Sondre Stromfjord, Millstone Hill and Arecibo) at high to lower latitudes along the American longitude, a FPI and all-sky camera measuring airglow at Millstone Hill, and a magnetometer chain in the auroral zone. During the campaign, substorm activity was observed at both daytime and nighttime on October 27-28, 1992. Figure 12 shows the magnetometer data for  $B_x$  measured at six sites in the auroral zone, covering longitudes from 220°E to 265°E. The ionospheric  $N_{max}$ ,  $H_{max}$  and TEC, showed moderate disturbances during 36 hours of the campaign, which were closely associated with substorm activity at high latitudes. Figure 13 gives these measurements at Millstone Hill and Arecibo, respectively, with the magnetic conditions at

high latitudes.

Electric fields and neutral winds were also derived from the plasma motions and temperatures measured at the middle latitudes using the radars and FPI. The electric fields and meridional winds at different latitudes were compared for substorm effects. As shown in Figure 14, eastward electric field perturbations were seen during 14-16 UT on October 27 and 03-07 UT on October 28 at both Millstone Hill and Arecibo when the electric field was enhanced at the high latitude site. These were identified as electric field penetration effects at both day and night when substorms occurred. Westward electric field perturbations were also observed at the two middle latitude sites when substorm activity was enhanced during 07-11 on October 28. At Arecibo, the southward plasma motions drove the neutrals and thus changed the neutral wind directions. This might have happened at Millstone Hill but results were not as clear as those at Arecibo because of the data quality.

At the subauroral site (Millstone Hill), a SAR arc was observed. This SAR arc showed a dynamical behavior in which the arc moved from the north of Millstone Hill to the south when the major substorm occurred on the night of October 28, 1992, and the zonal electric field showed westward perturbations. Figure 15 shows sequential 6300Å images, demonstrating the SAR arc dynamical behavior.

### 3. PLANETARY WAVE SIGNATURES

#### 3.1 Small-Scale Waves

SETA density measurements (normalized to a nominal altitude of 200 km) were analyzed to delineate characteristics of relatively small-scale waves (horizontal structures of order 150 to 2500 km) in the data. (Note: This analysis is restricted to *in-track* (*latitudinal*) structures; the analysis of longitudinal structures is addressed in Section 4.3) The spectral

analyses were applied to all available orbits (approximately 15 to 18 per day) during 6 days in 1983 and 10 days in 1982, covering a range of geomagnetic conditions.

This project has been completed during the past year, and a journal article written and accepted for publication in the Journal of Geophysical Research:

"Wave Structures in Lower Thermosphere Density from Satellite Electrostatic Triaxial Accelerometer (SETA) Measurements" by J.M. Forbes, F.A. Marcos, and F. Kamalabadi

As a result of this analysis, the lower thermosphere is found to be frequently characterized by wavelike structures corresponding to peak-to-peak density variations of order 10–40%. Orbit by orbit spectral analyses of densities normalized to 200 km altitude were performed, and these are combined together to construct average periodograms for magnetically quiet and active periods. Integration of these curves provides the relative percentage of total density variance attributable to various horizontal scales; for instance, 10% for  $\lambda_H < 750$  km and 70% for  $1500 < \lambda_H < 2500$  km. As geomagnetic activity increases from quiet ( $K_p < 2$ ) to active ( $K_p > 4$ ) levels, the spectral energy increases by a factor of two for wavelengths in the range 150 - 500 km and by a factor of four at longer wavelengths (1000 - 2500 km). This is illustrated in Figure 16. In part the spectral energy enhancement at the longer wavelengths reflects mesoscale density variations unrelated to wave activity, but "direct" waves generated by auroral activity and which are known to travel long distances probably also make important contributions at these wavelengths. Similarly, a comparison of day vs. night periodograms for all orbits during 1983 are illustrated in Figure 17. This plot illustrates the enhancement in wave activity which occurs at scales shorter than 400 km during the night, whereas the spectral densities at wavelengths longer than 500 km are virtually the same. The magnetic activity enhancement at shorter scales is also significant, especially at low latitudes, since waves with these horizontal wavelengths are not expected on theoretical grounds to propagate very far within

the thermosphere away from an auroral source. Moreover, the shorter scale waves regularly occur during geomagnetically quiet times when an auroral source mechanism is unlikely.

### 3.2 Magnetic Storm Perturbations

SETA-2 and SETA-3 data have been analyzed during the following periods containing significant changes in geomagnetic activity:

- (a) July 20-27, 1983
- (b) August 2-10, 1983
- (c) August 2-9, 1982
- (d) September 3-11, 1982
- (e) December 4-14, 1983

Various data visualization tools have been developed to depict the temporal, day/night, and latitudinal/seasonal trends characterizing the response of thermospheric mass density to changes in high-latitude heating during magnetically active periods. Data between 170 and 240 km are normalized to a constant altitude of 200 km. Sliding 11-rev (about 16 hours) means are applied to the data to remove smaller-scale features, and to serve as a "trend" for delineation of the residual densities (see following section).

Figure 18 illustrates the latitude-time variations in total mass density "trend" occurring during the July 1983 period. Note the much larger response occurring in the summer hemisphere; this is due in part to the enhanced Joule heating connected with the larger ionization levels characterizing the summer ionosphere. There is also the tendency for the density perturbation to be carried from summer to winter due to the prevailing thermospheric circulation in that direction. The combination of these two effects gives rise to the large seasonal asymmetry in the density response depicted in Figure 18.

Figure 19 illustrates the SETA density response in the nightside (2230 LST) for

the July 1983 period. Note that the density response penetrates much more easily to the equatorial region; this is due to the enhanced equatorward winds which characterize the nighttime thermosphere as opposed to the daytime thermosphere. The corresponding Figure 20 for MSISE90 does not reflect this behavior, pointing to a shortcoming of this empirical model.

Figures 21-24 illustrate the SETA density trends for periods (b), (c), (d), and (e) listed above. Each exhibits the same general response features to the changing magnetic activity levels. In particular, note the enhanced Southern Hemisphere summer response in Figure 24.

A statistical examination was also made regarding the Kp dependence of the densities, in particular the temporal/latitudinal characteristics of this behavior. As illustrated in Figure 25, the higher latitudes correlated best with a Kp delay of 3 hours, whereas the lower latitudes correlated best with a Kp delay of 6 hours. This latitudinal dependence of the time delay is consistent with that required physically for a disturbance to propagating from polar/auroral to low latitudes.

### 3.3 Longitudinal Wave Structures

By subtracting the measured densities from the "trends", a set of density residuals have been constructed. Figure 26 illustrates the density residuals for the July, 1983 period. Note that throughout this period that longitudinal wave structures with apparent zonal wavenumbers in the range of 2-4 are apparent in the data at about the  $\pm 10\%$  level. A "zoom" version of these data is provided in Figure 27. We believe these structures to be a real phenomenon which has not been previously discovered in the thermosphere. We are presently applying various spectral and aliasing techniques to these data to ascertain whether we can unambiguously identify whether these are standing waves (i.e., fixed in longitude) or eastward- or westward-propagating.



When ordered in magnetic coordinates (see Figure 28), these same data exhibit a zonal wavenumber one oscillation which is probably stationary and connected with a magnetic coordinate (UT or longitude) effect. The origin of this feature and its connection to UT/longitude variations in the MSISE90 model are currently under investigation.

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Figure 1

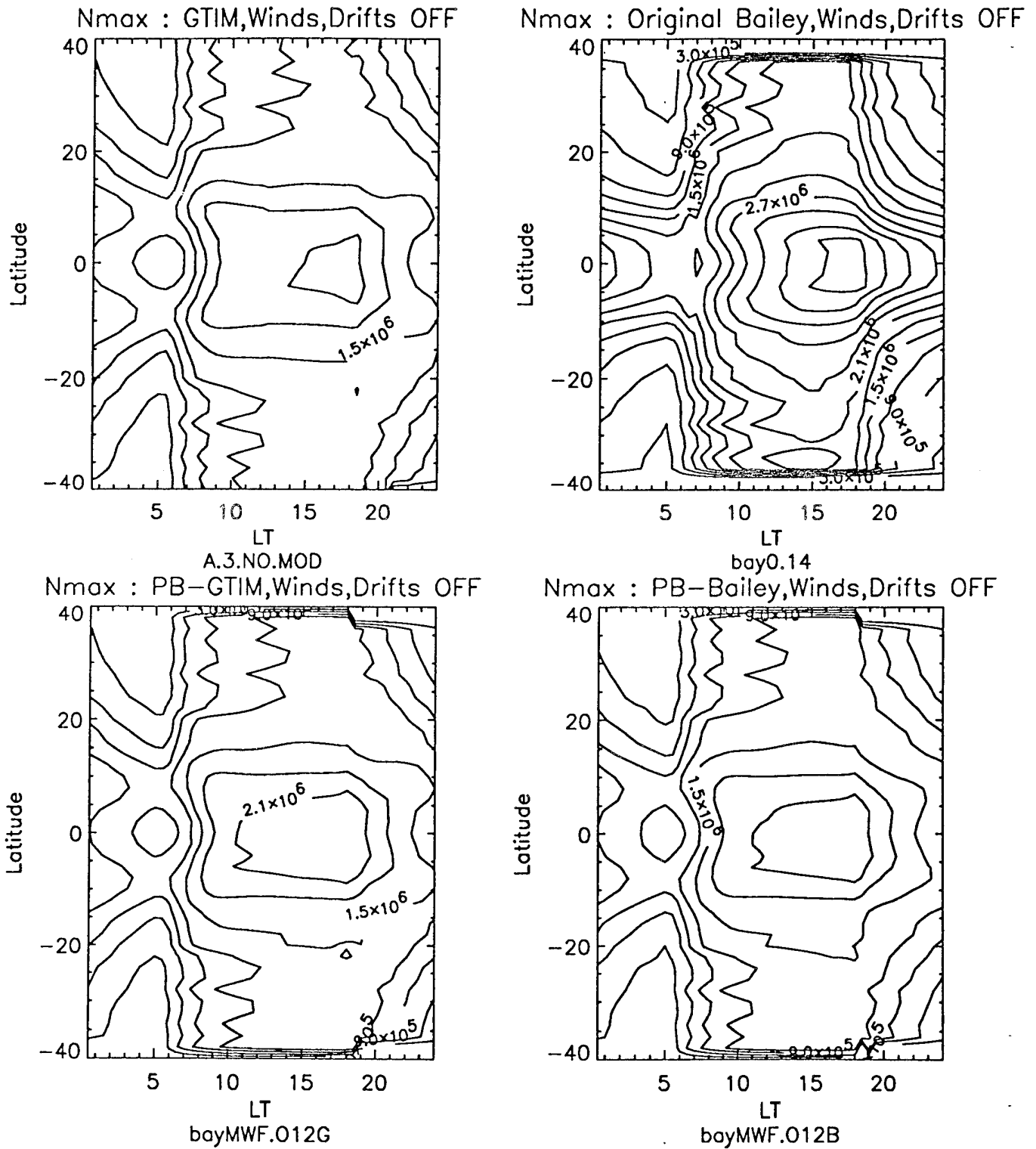


Figure 2

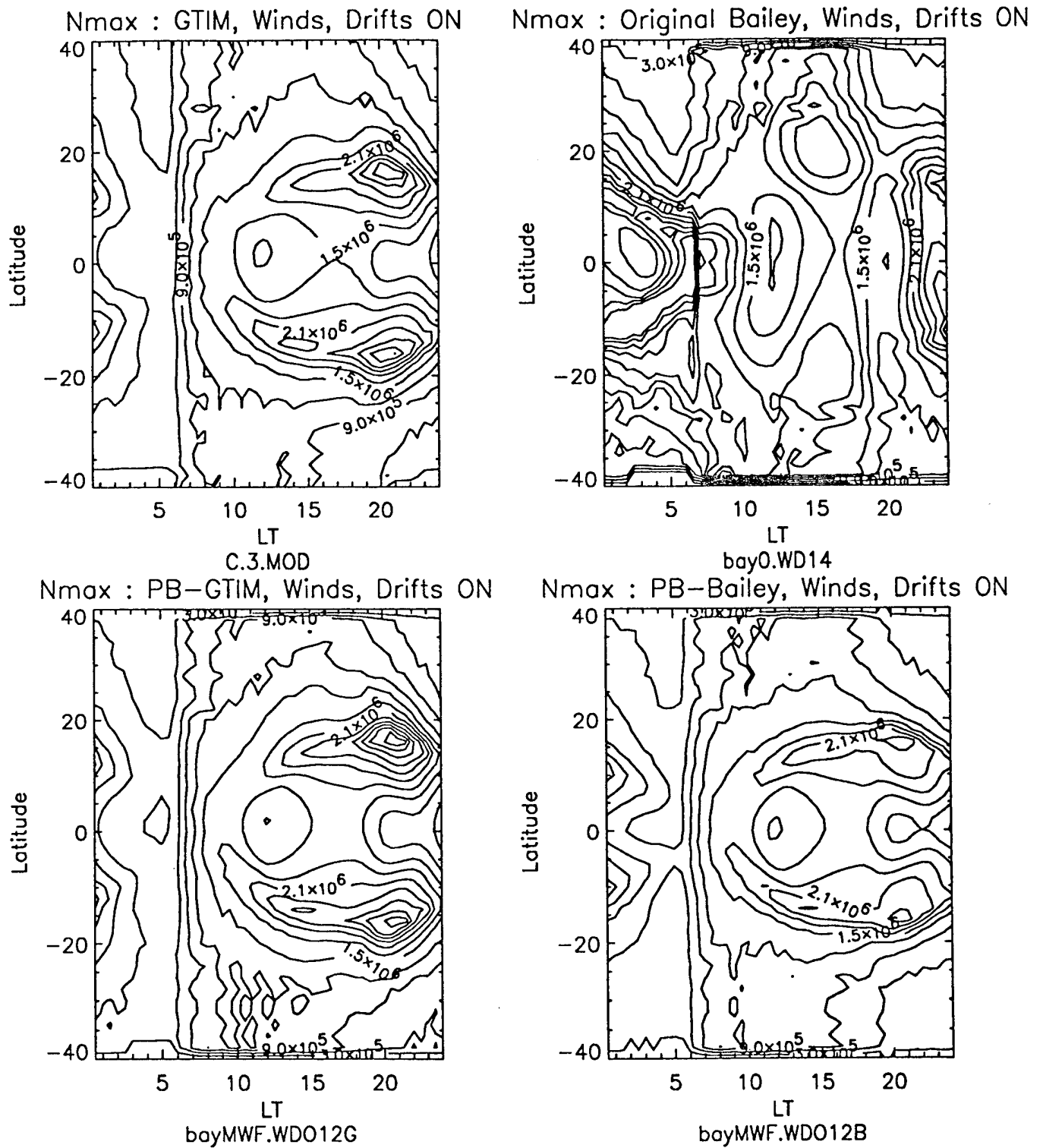


Figure 3

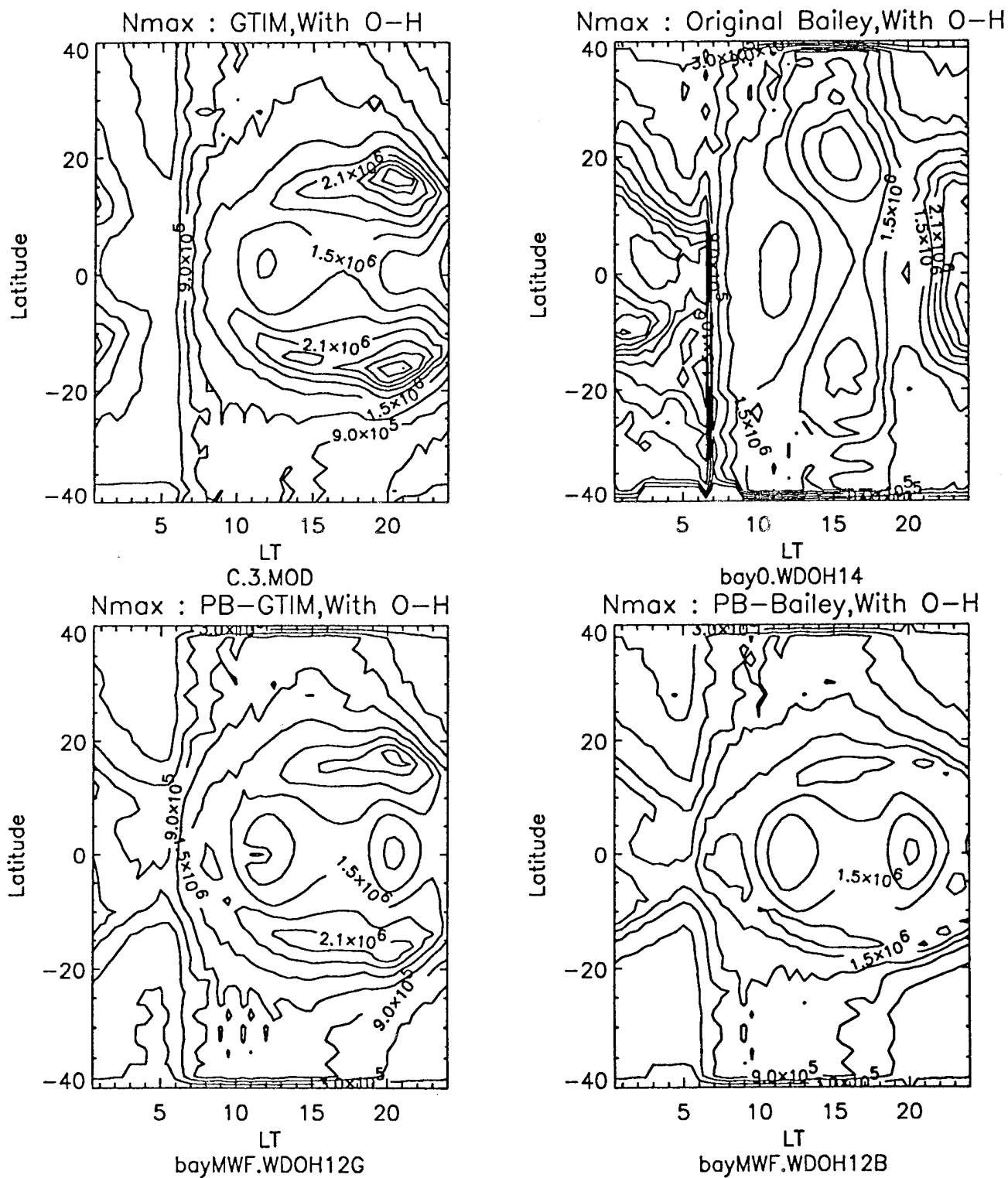


Figure 4

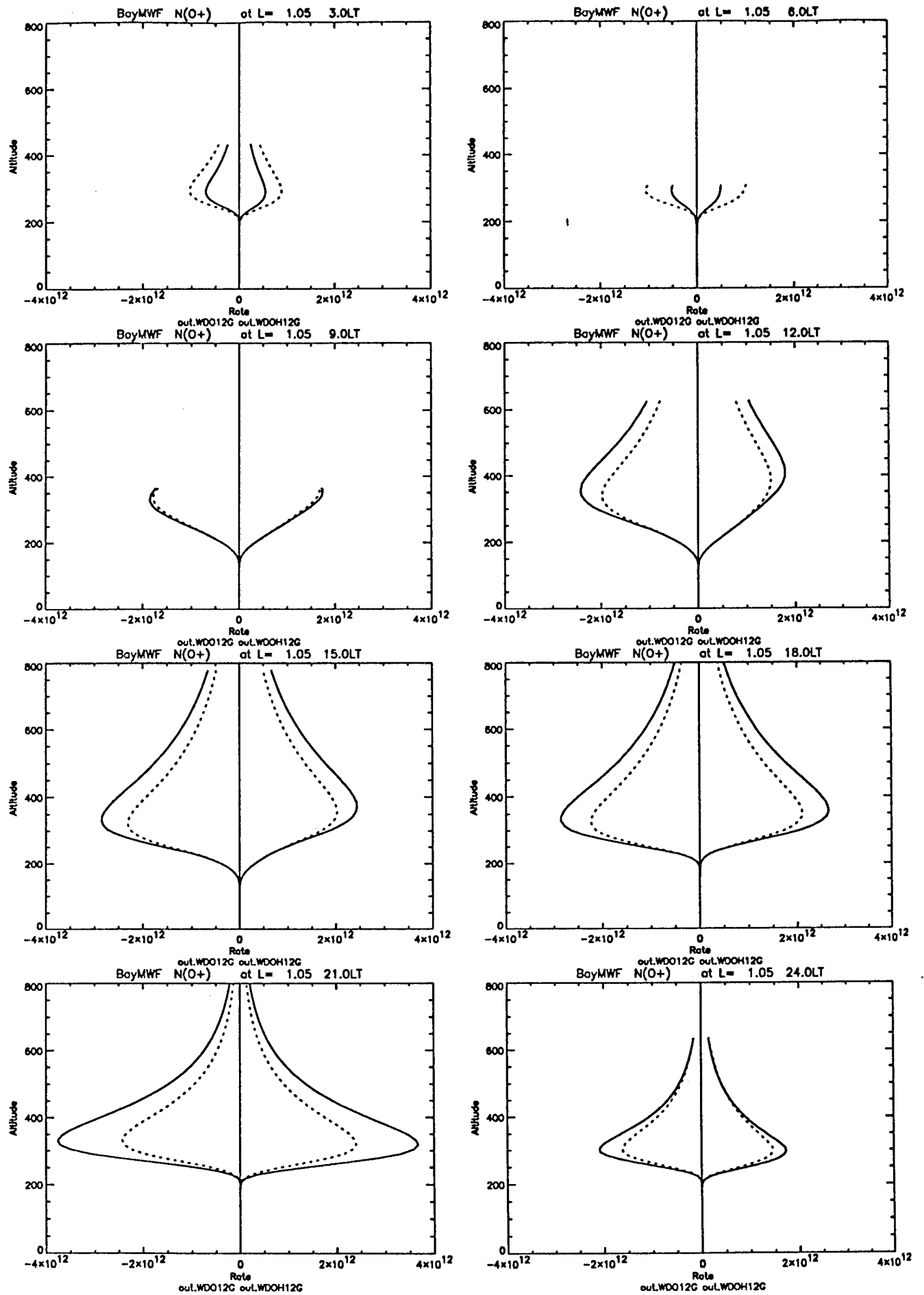


Figure 5

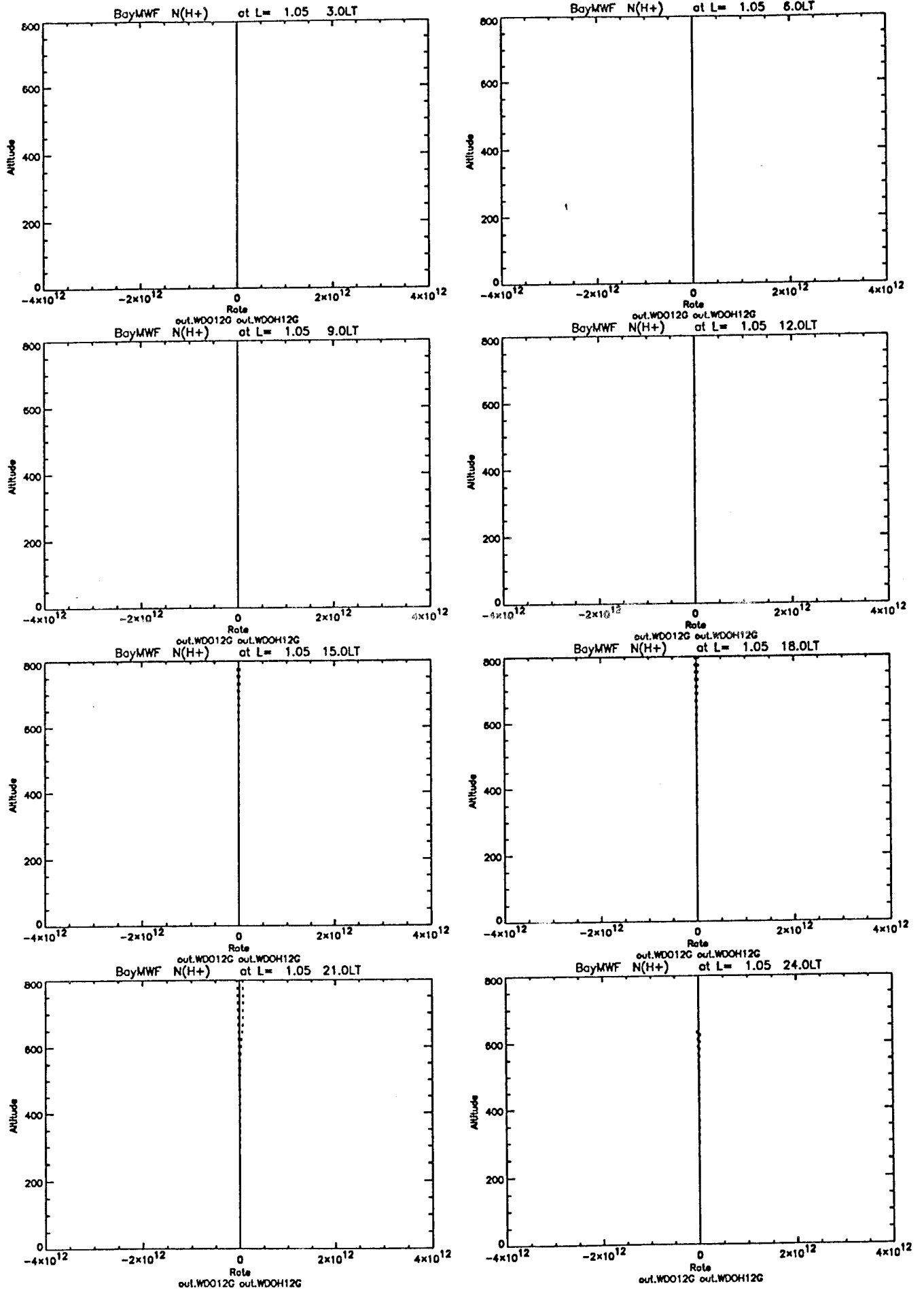


Figure 6

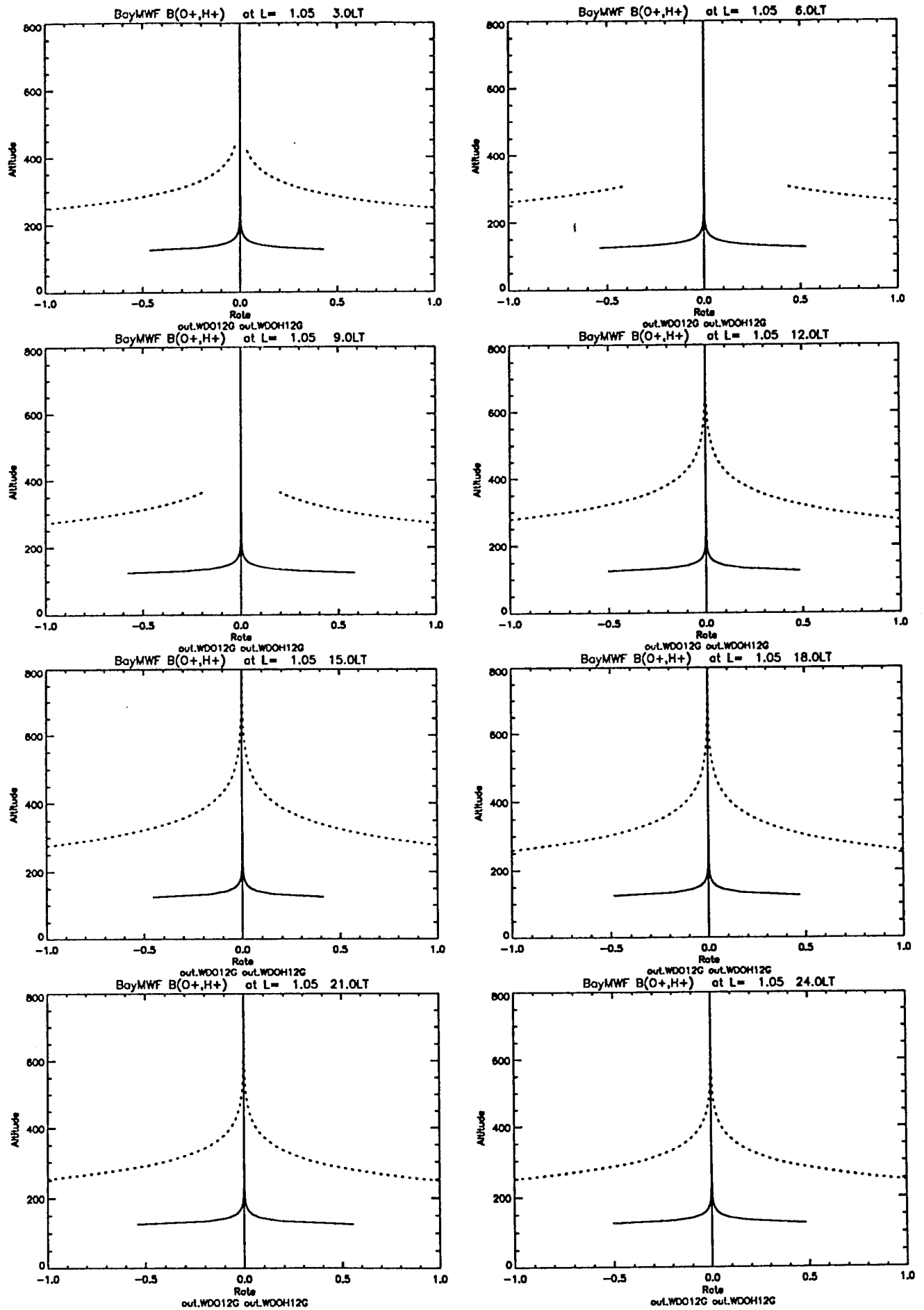




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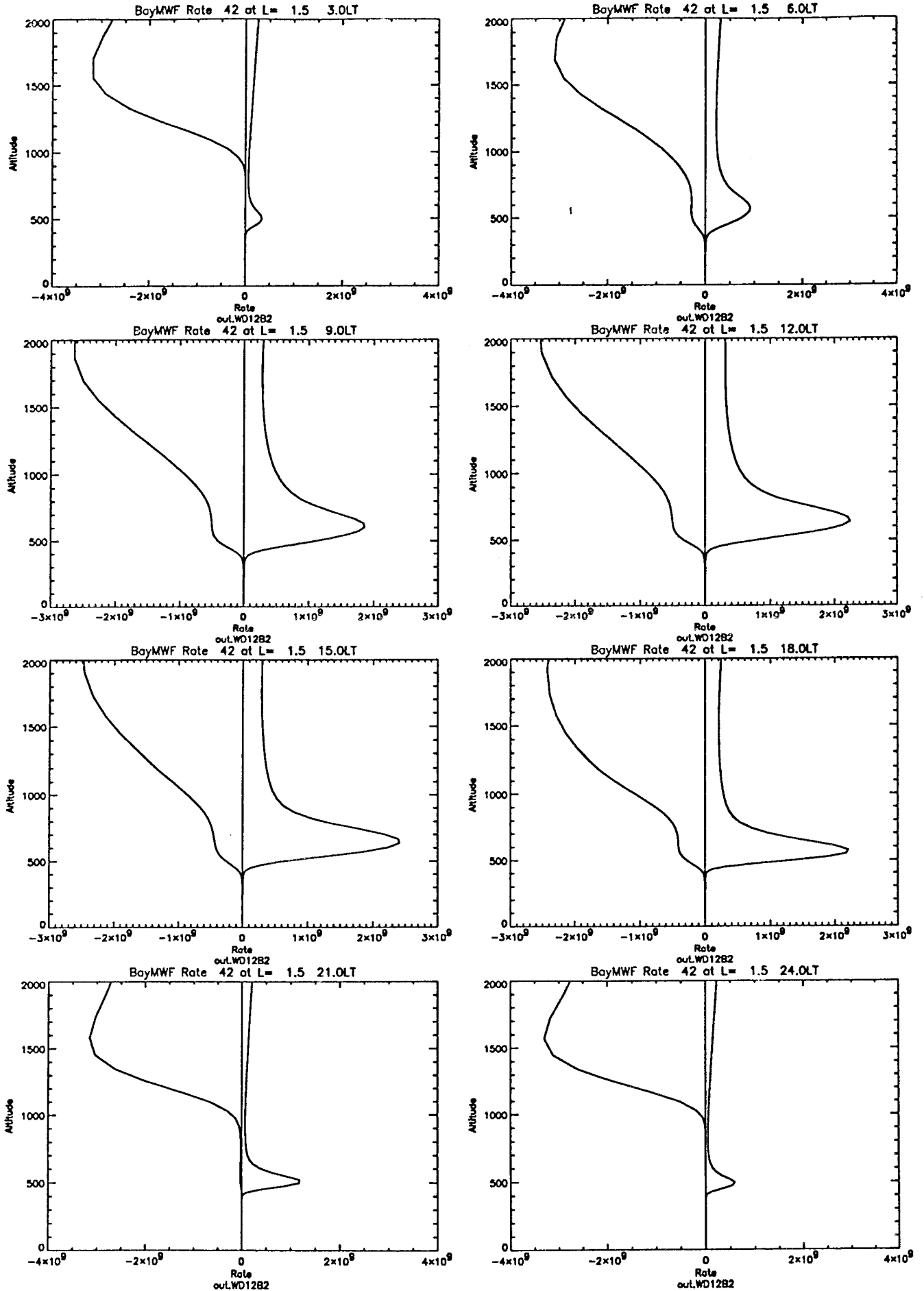


Figure 8

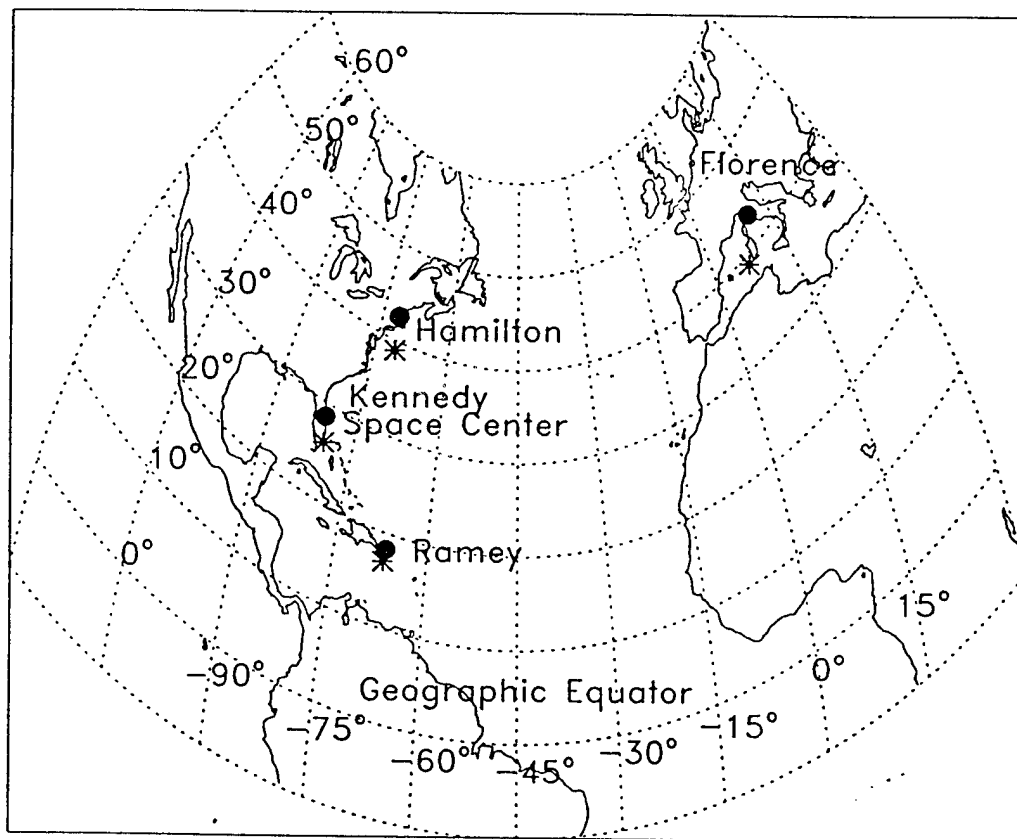


Figure 9

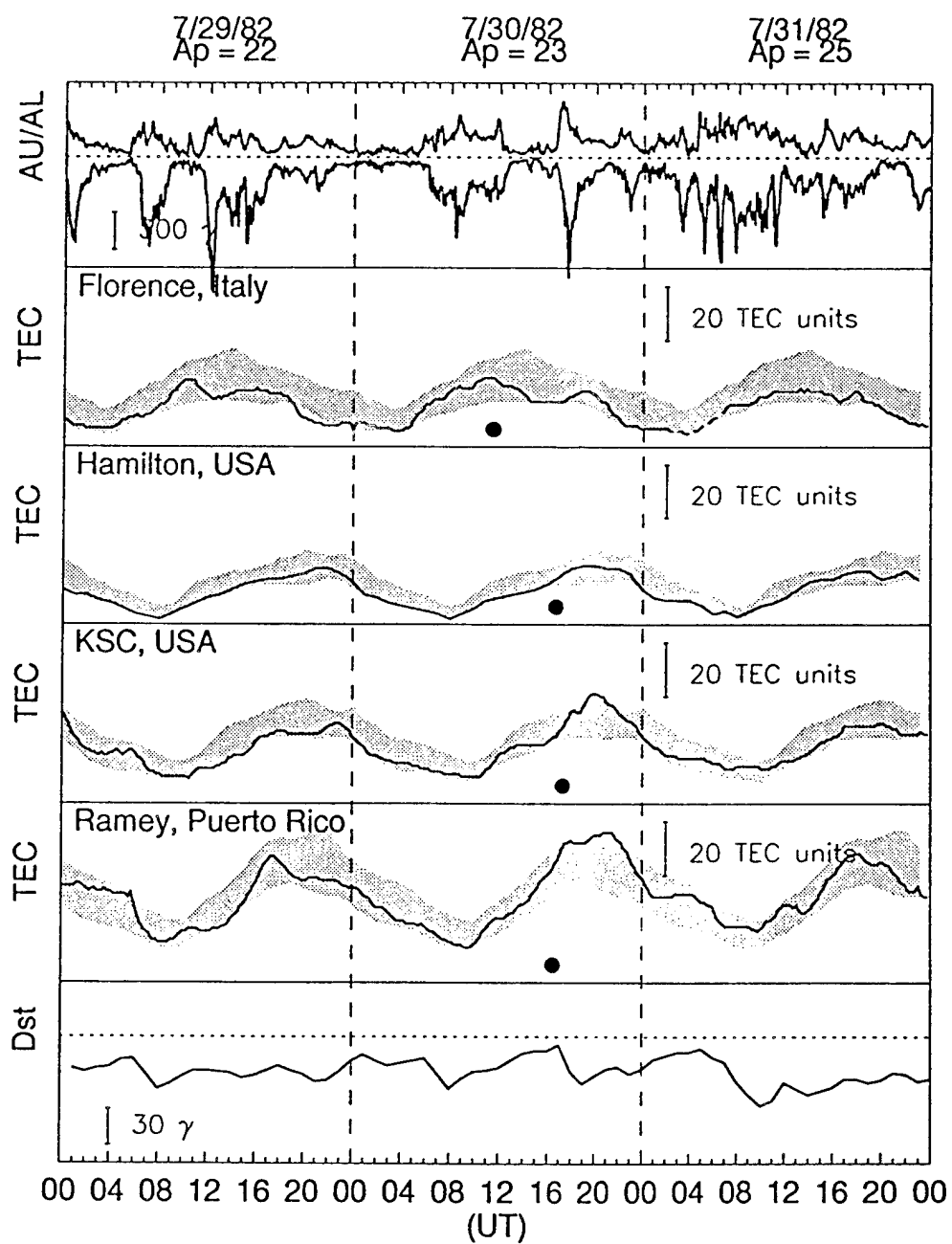
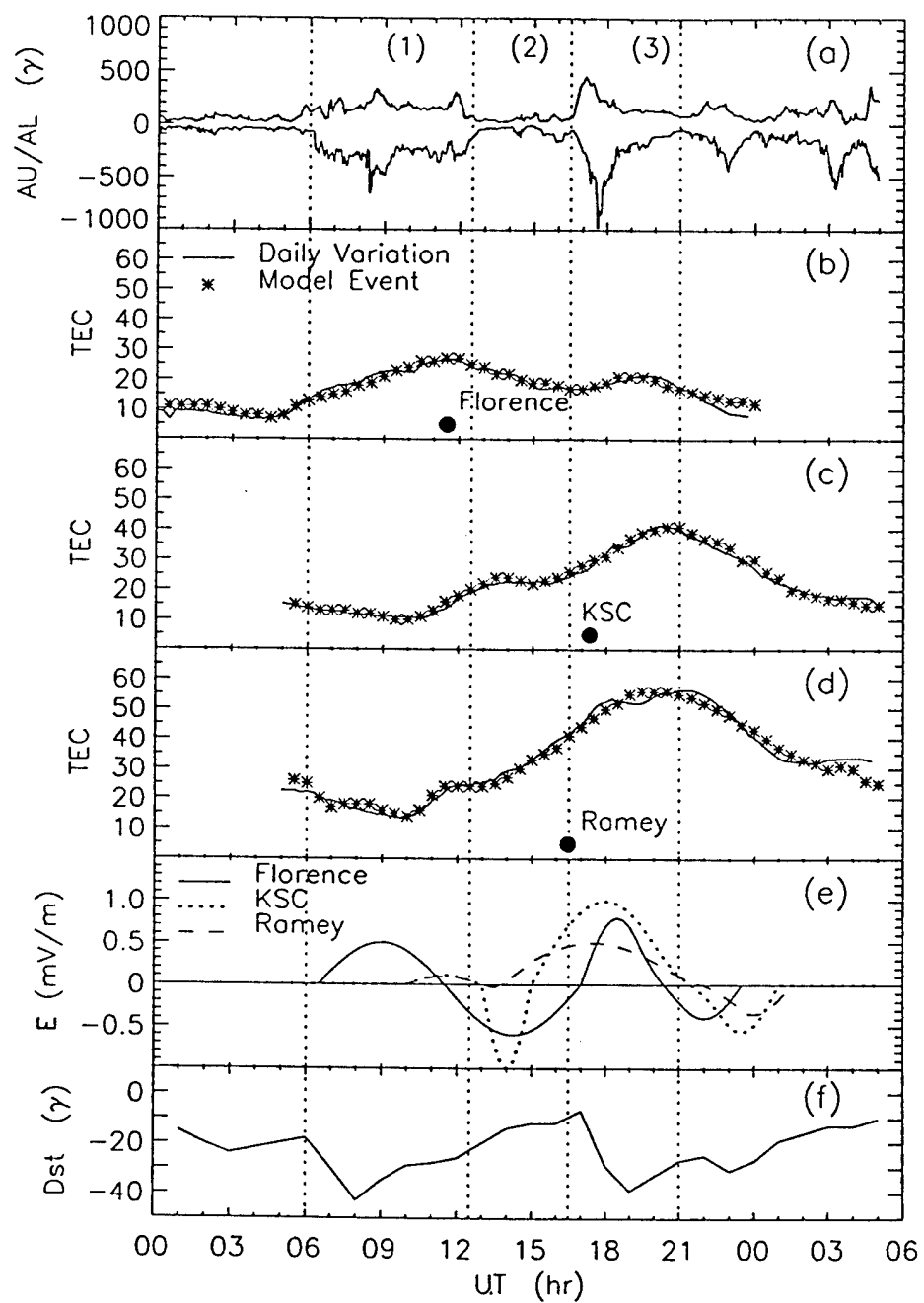


Figure 10



July 30, 1982.

Figure 11

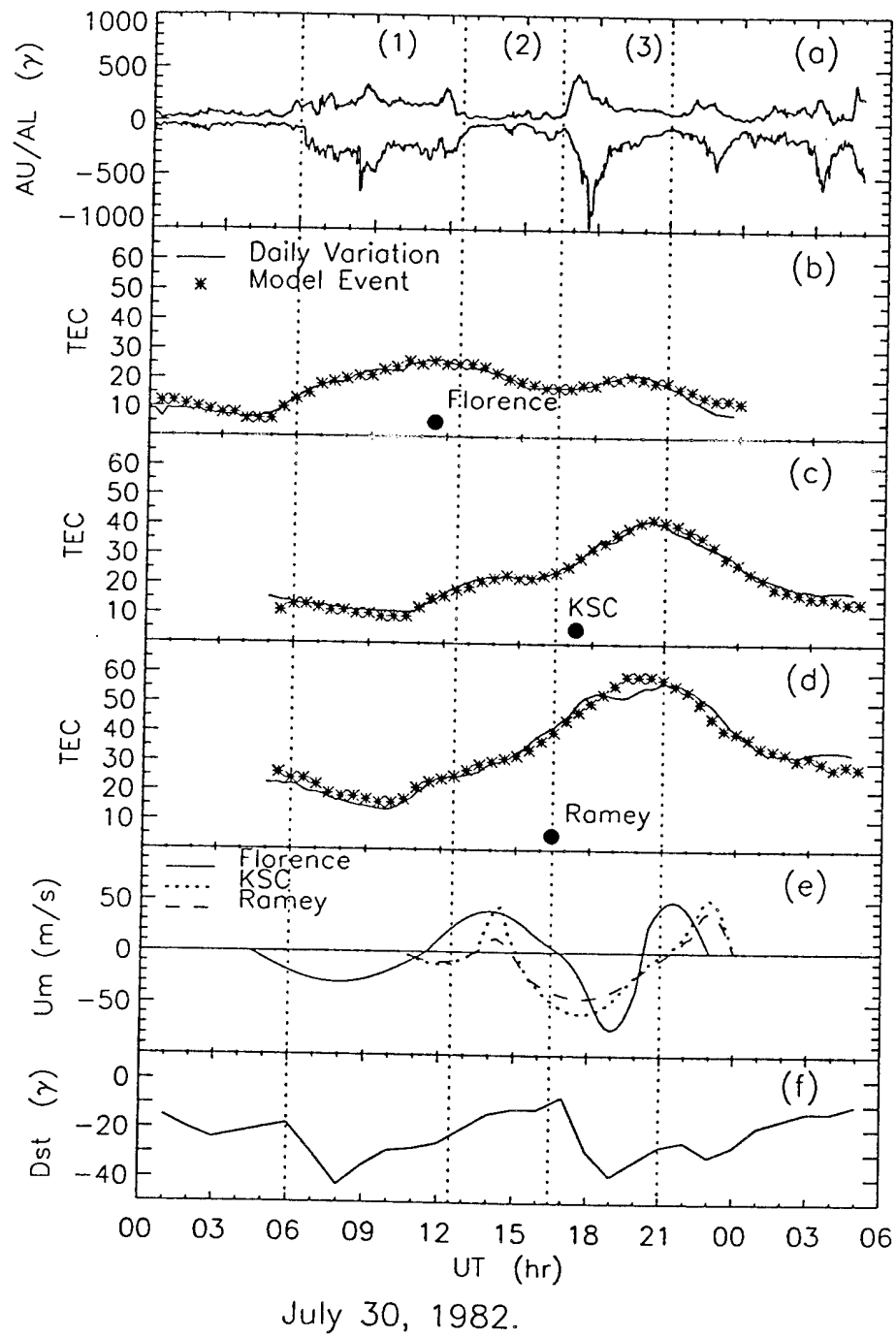


Figure 12

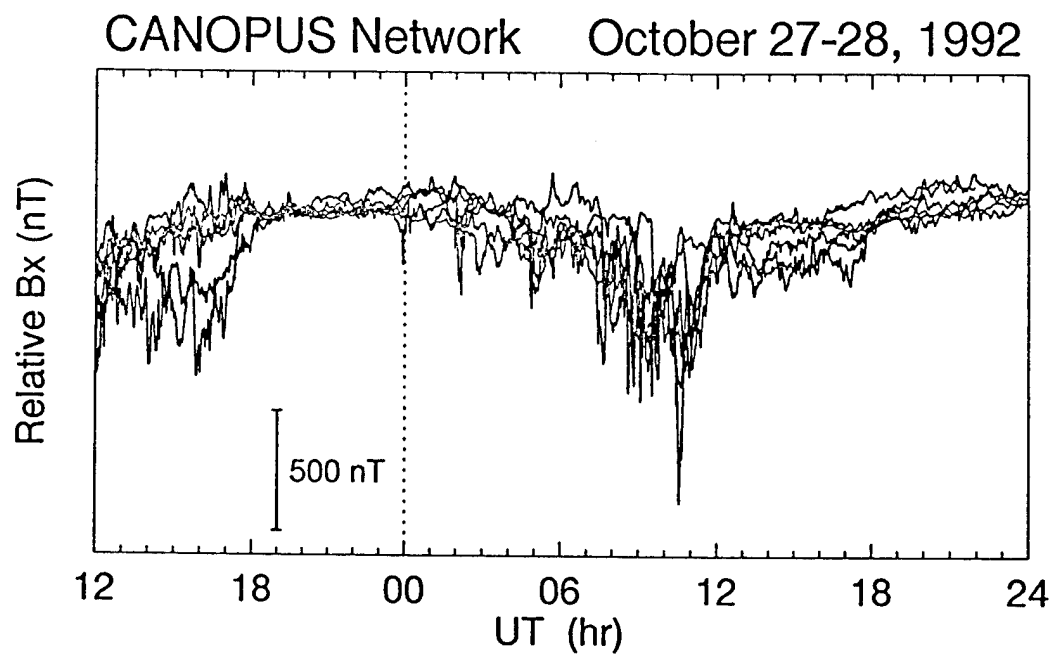


Figure 13

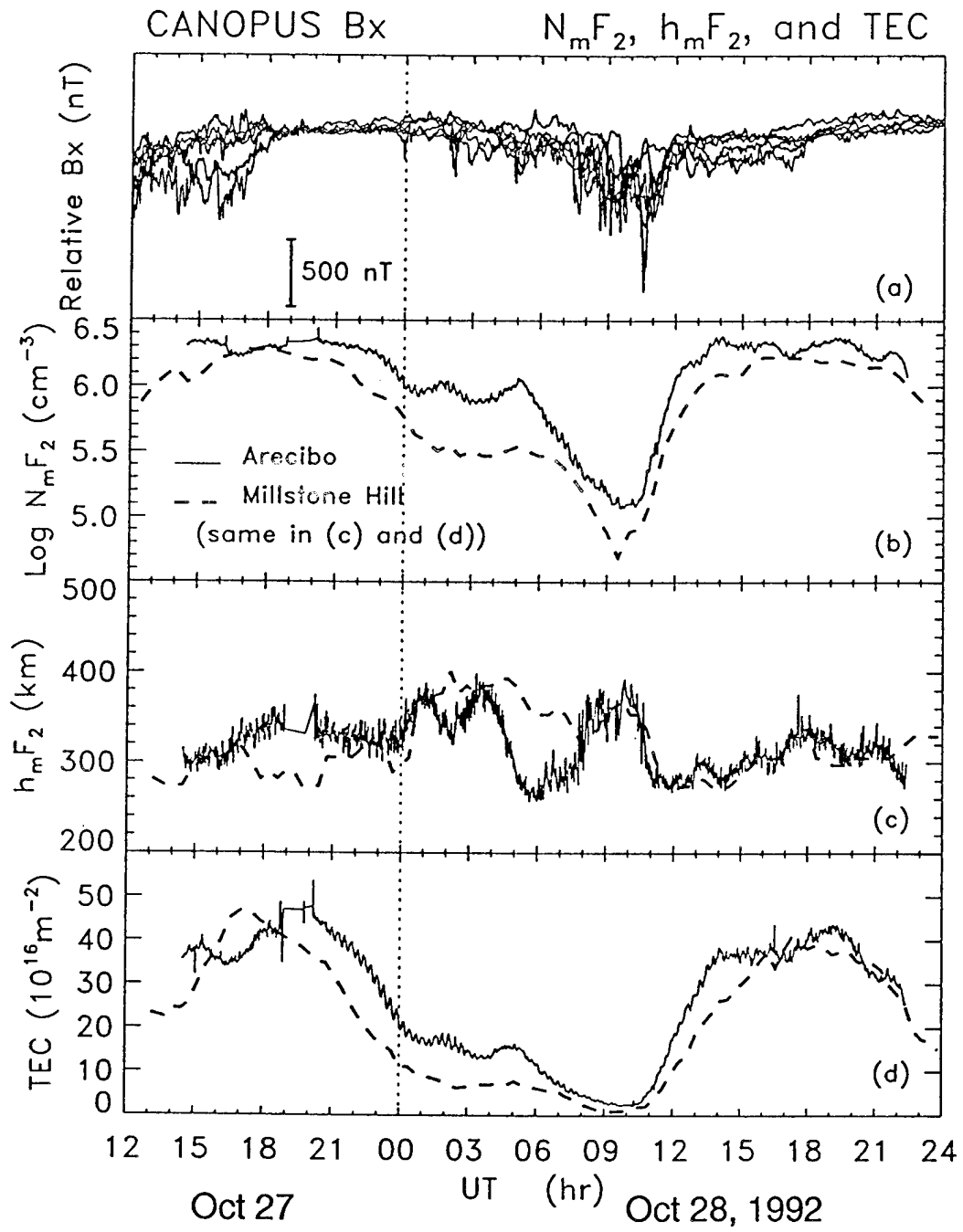


Figure 14

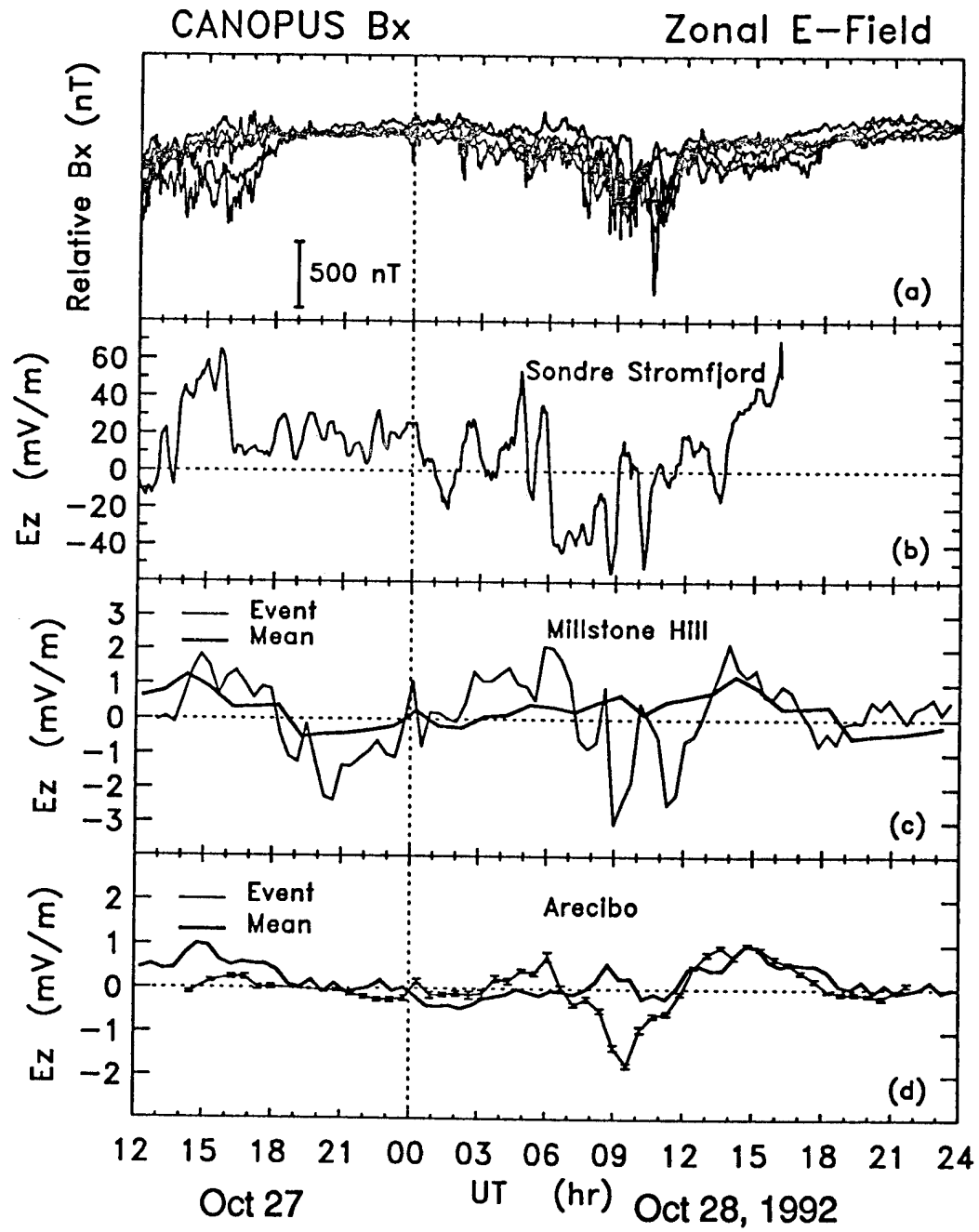
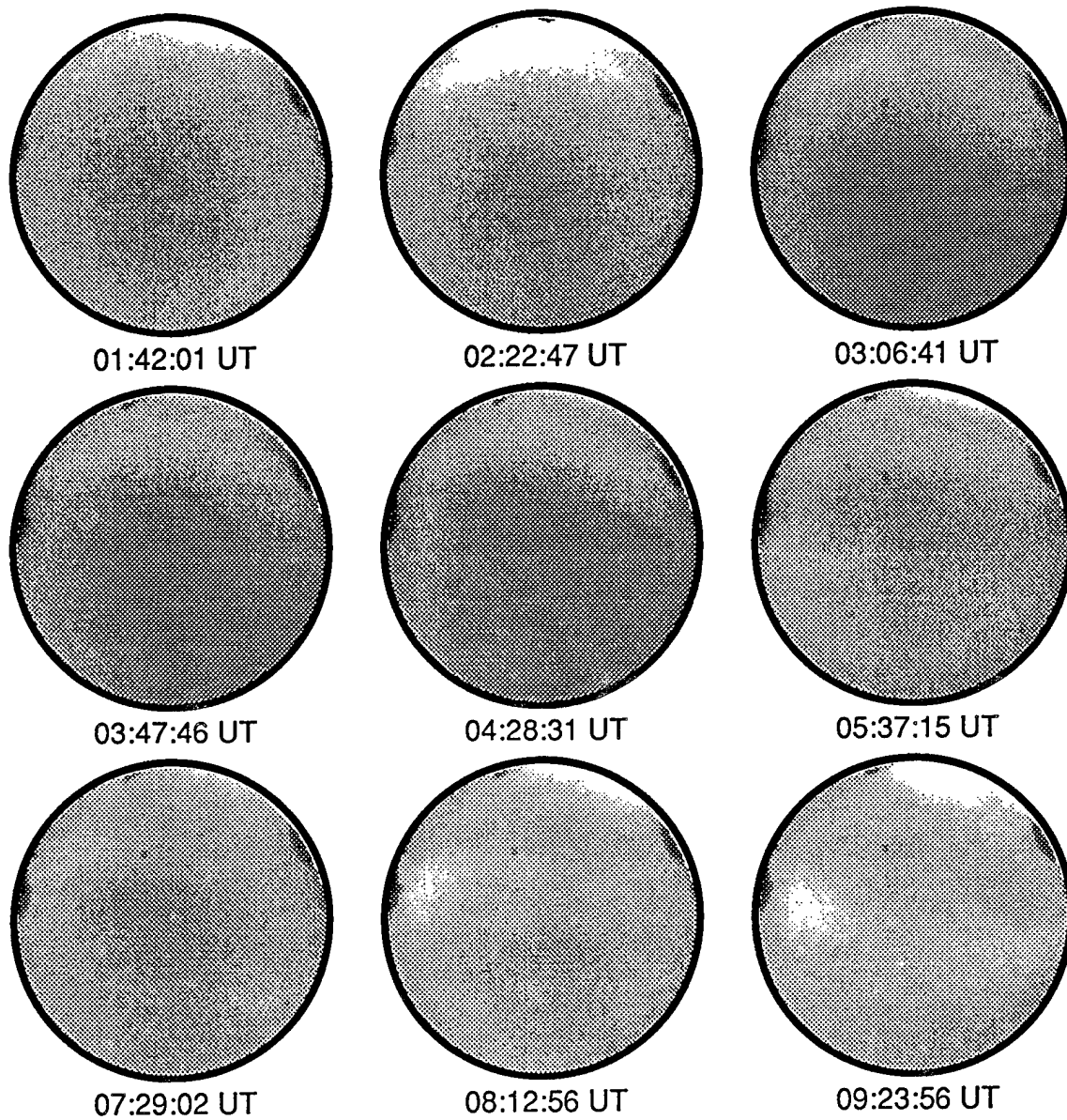




Figure 15.



# Averaged Periodogram for Quiet vs. Active Orbits in 1983

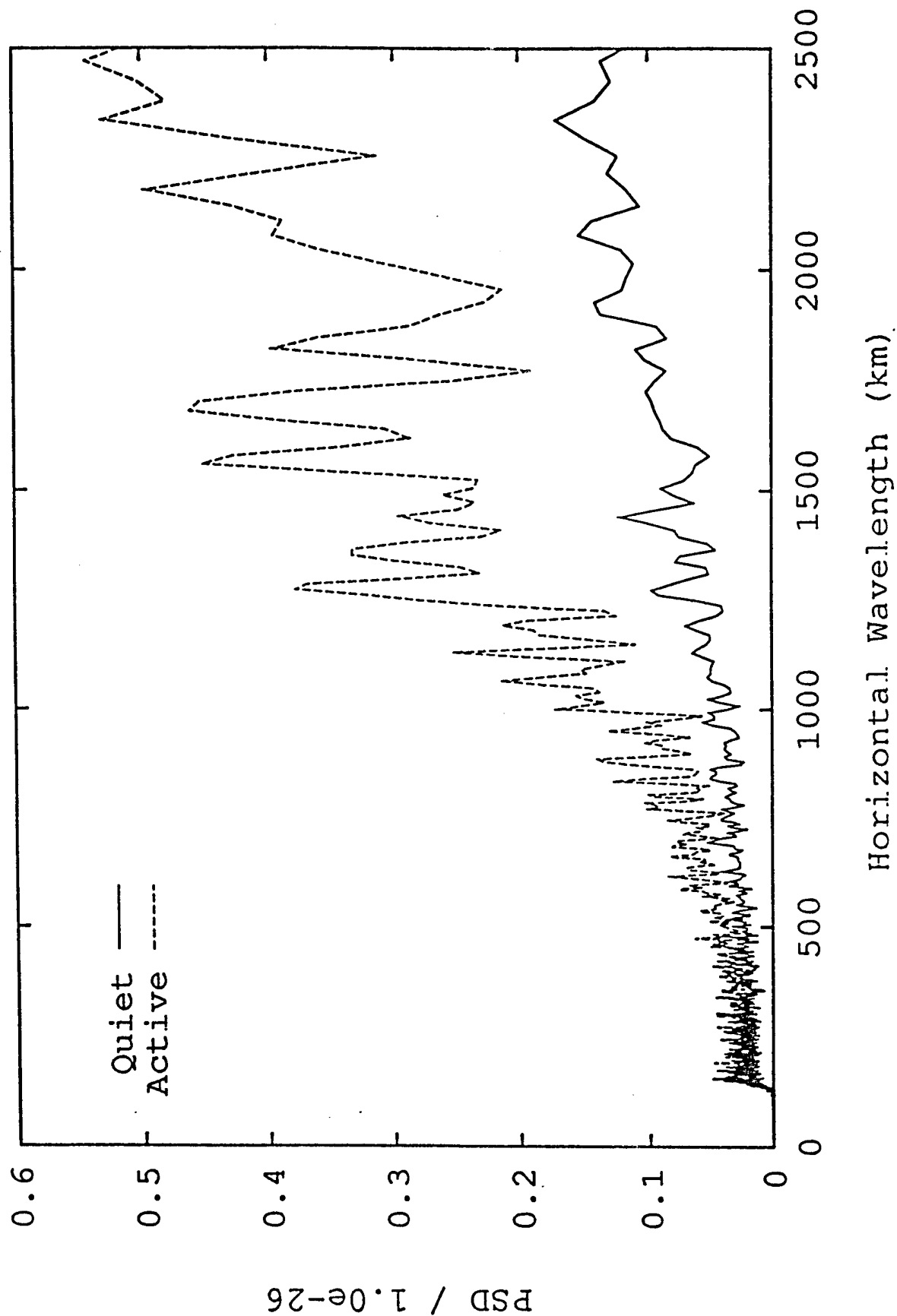


Figure 16

Day vs. Night Averaged Periodogram for 1983

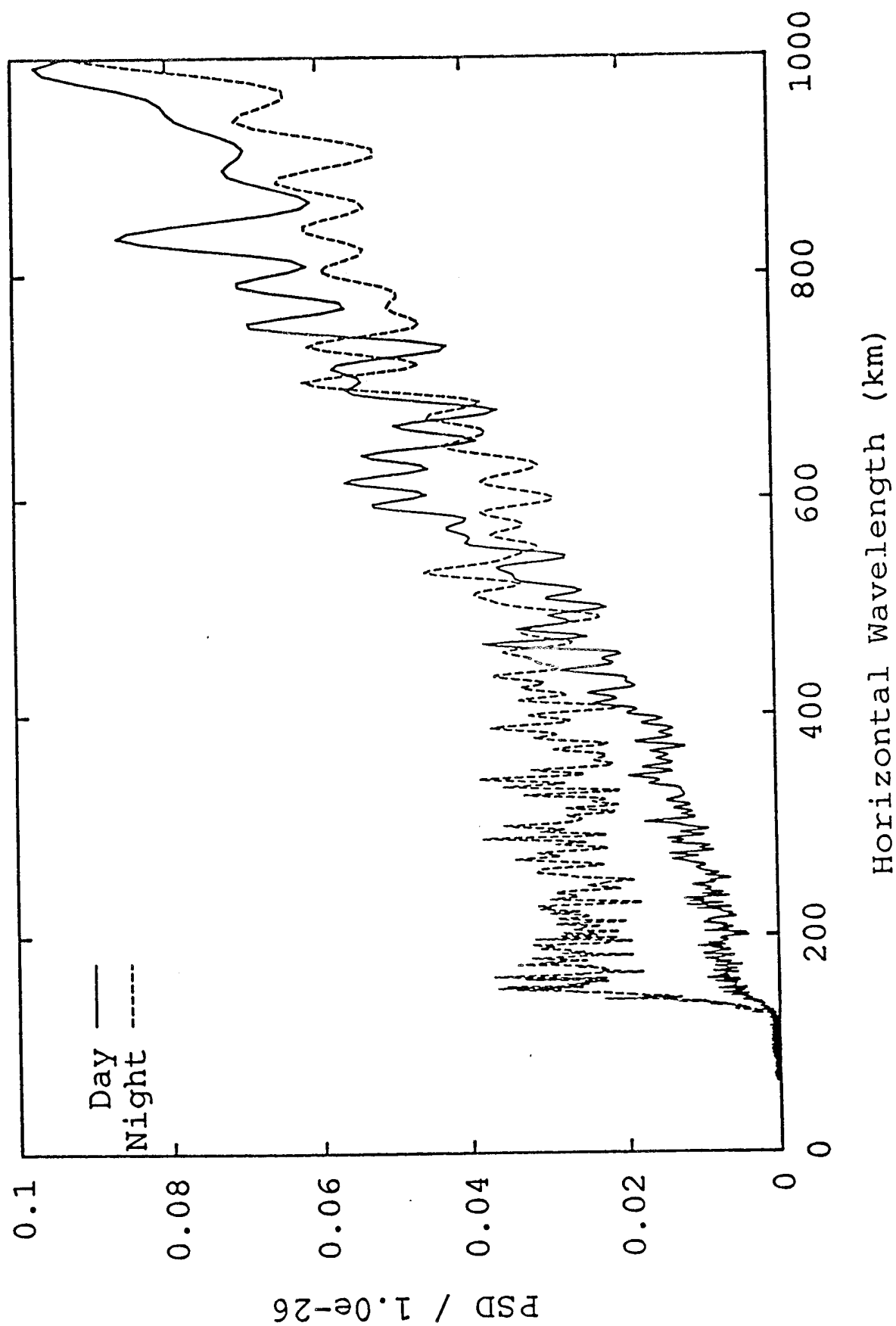


Figure 17

Figure 18.

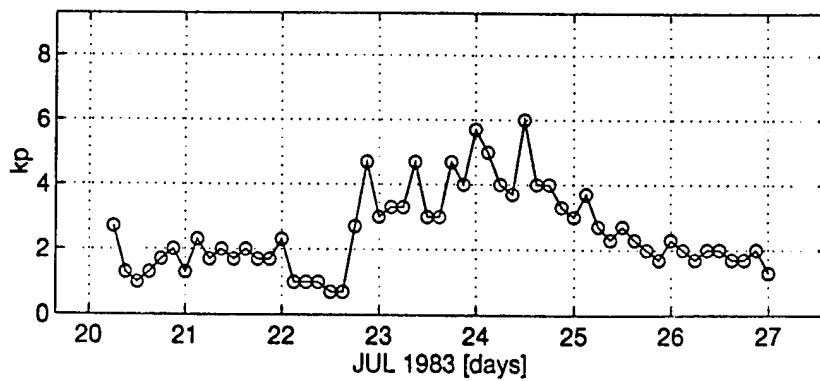
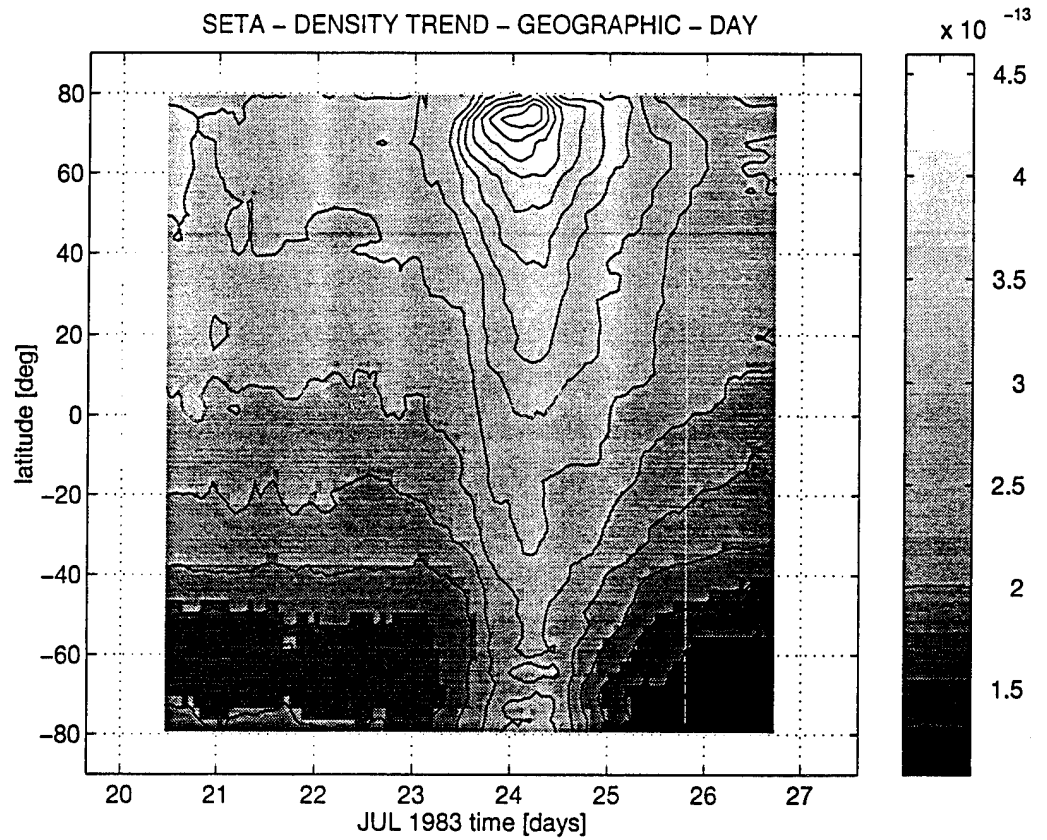


Figure 19.

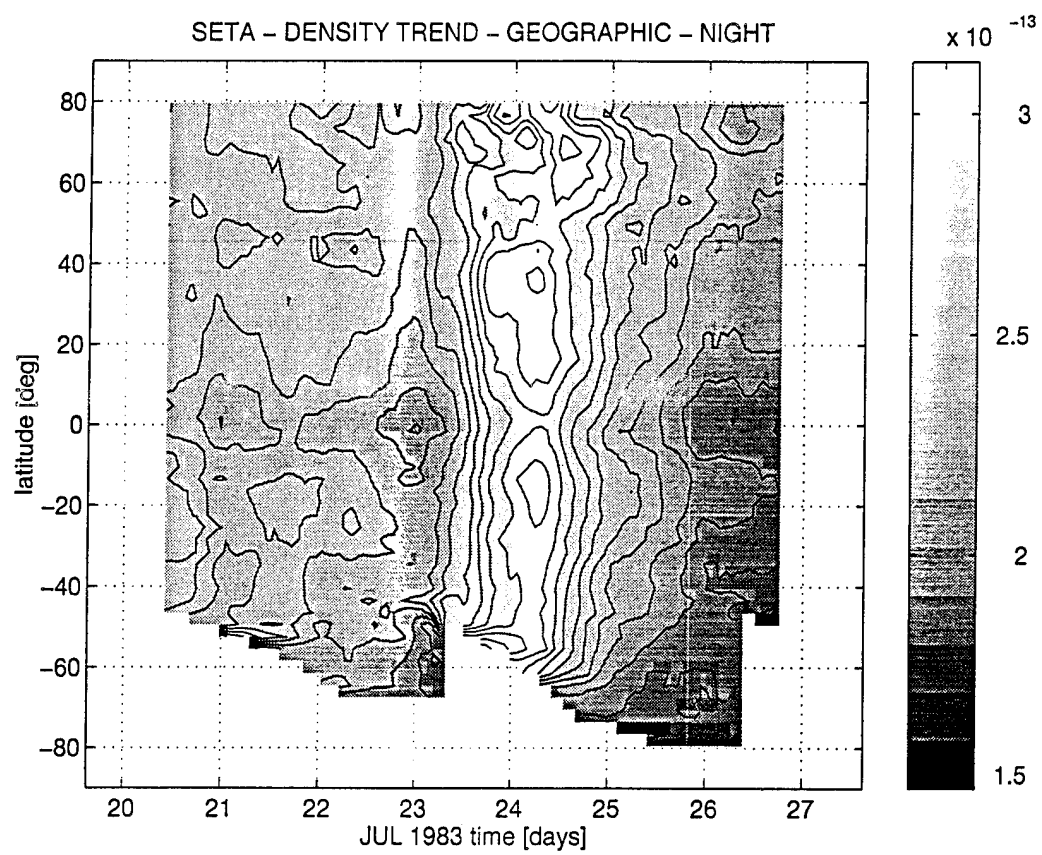


Figure 20.

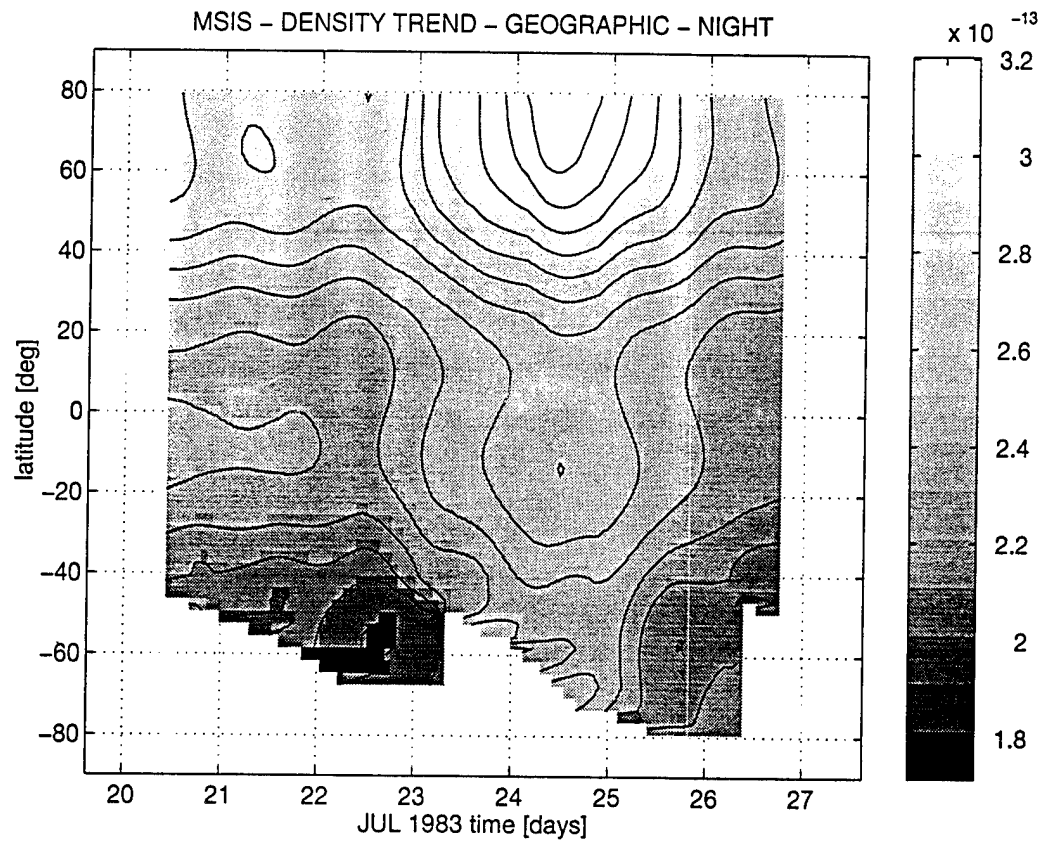


Figure 21.

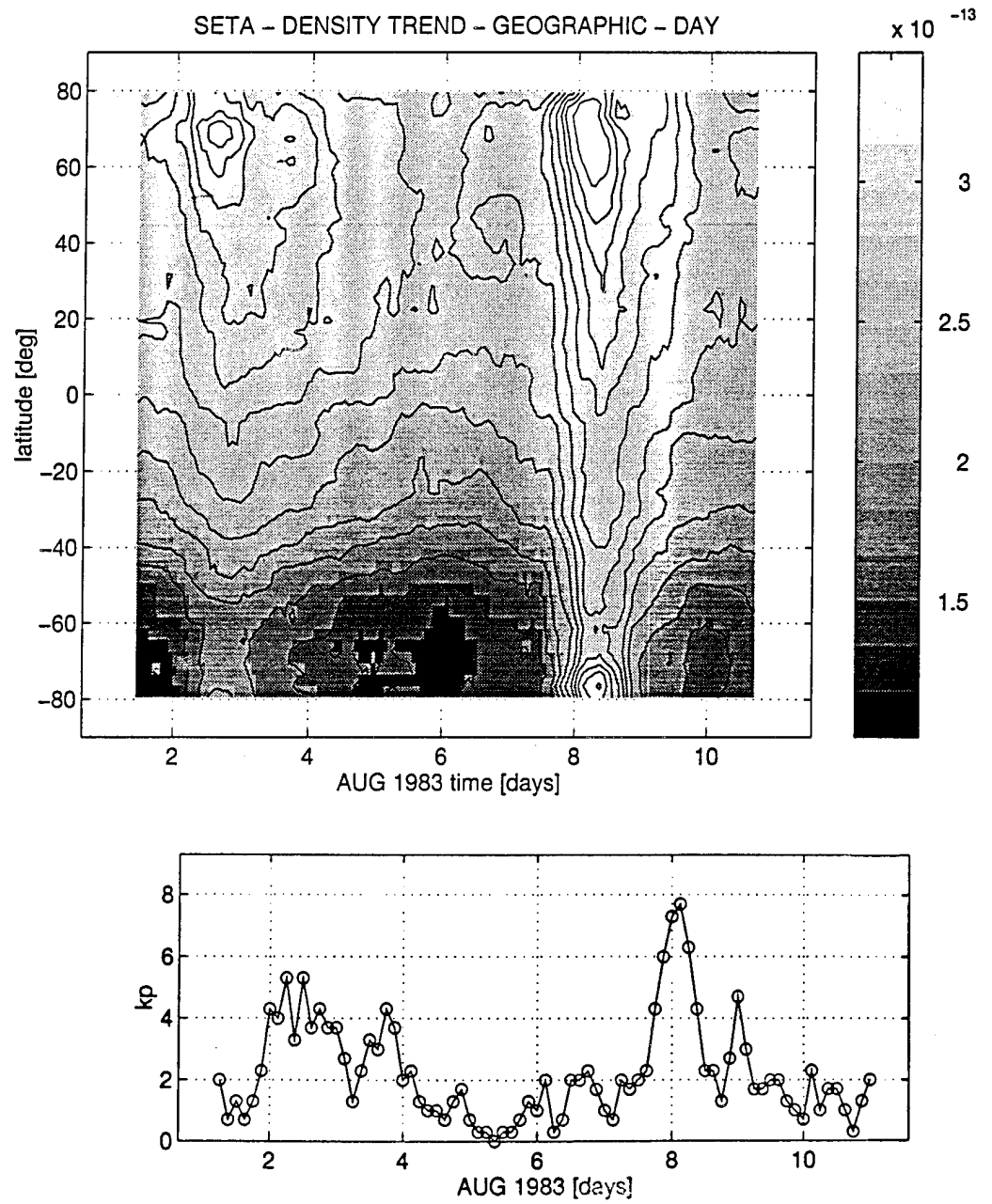


Figure 22.

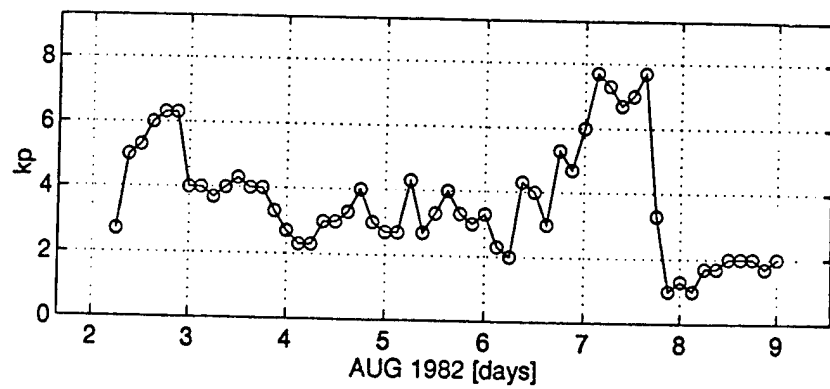
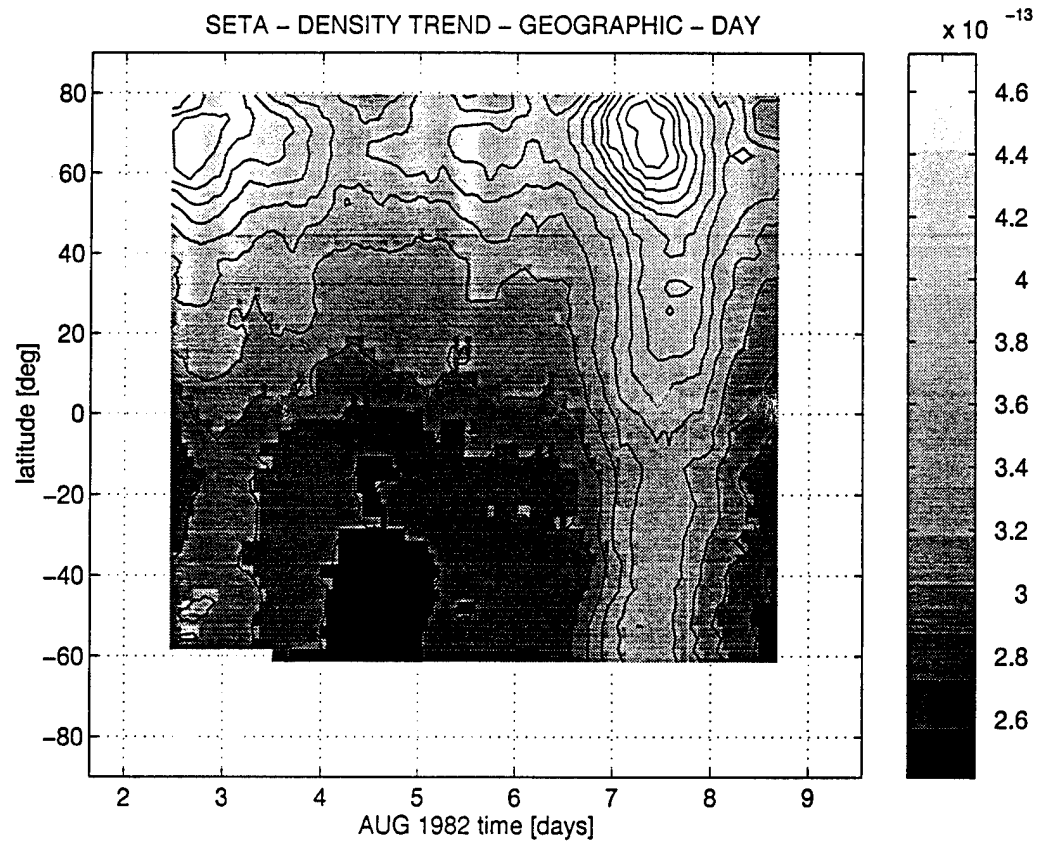




Figure 23.

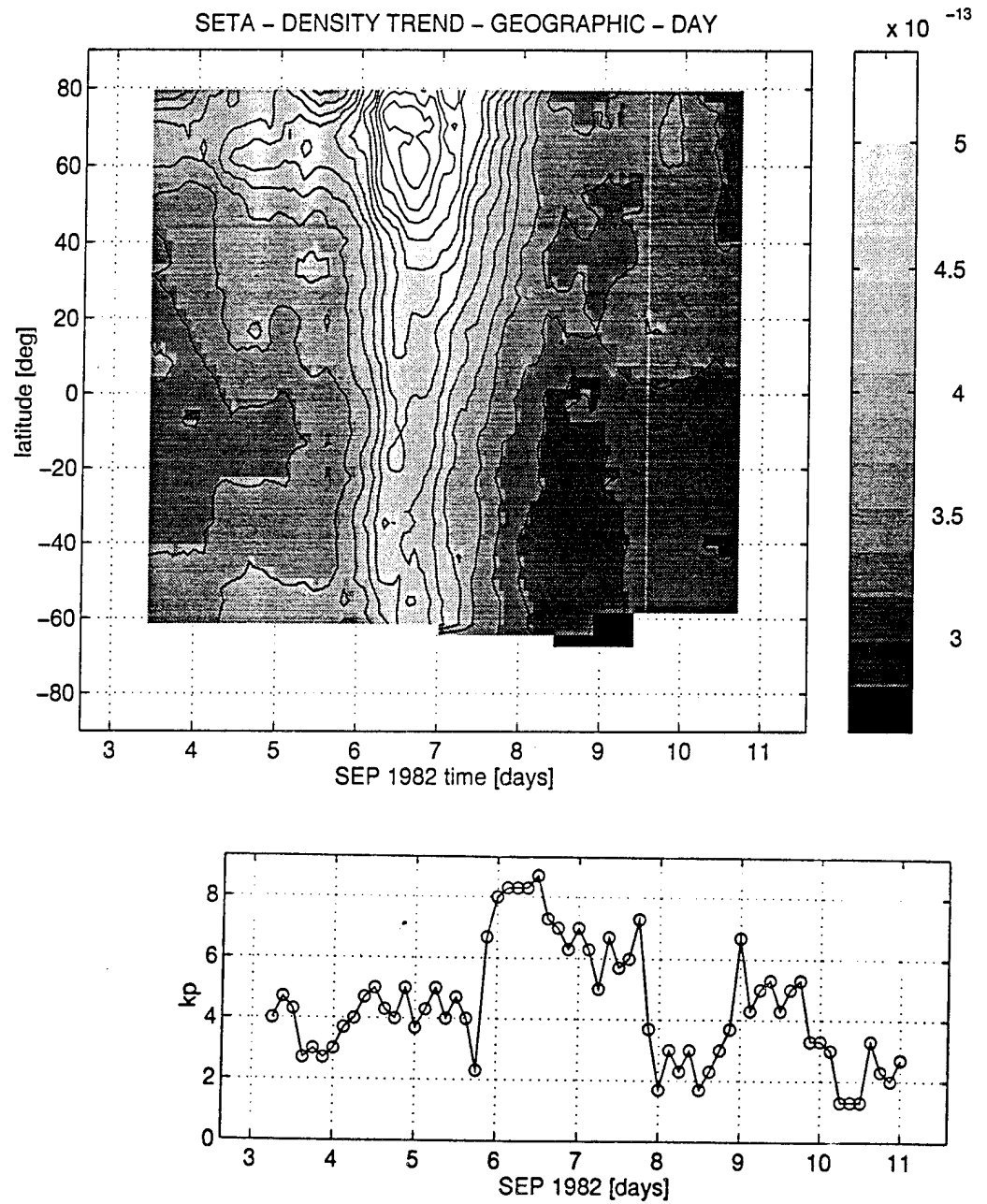
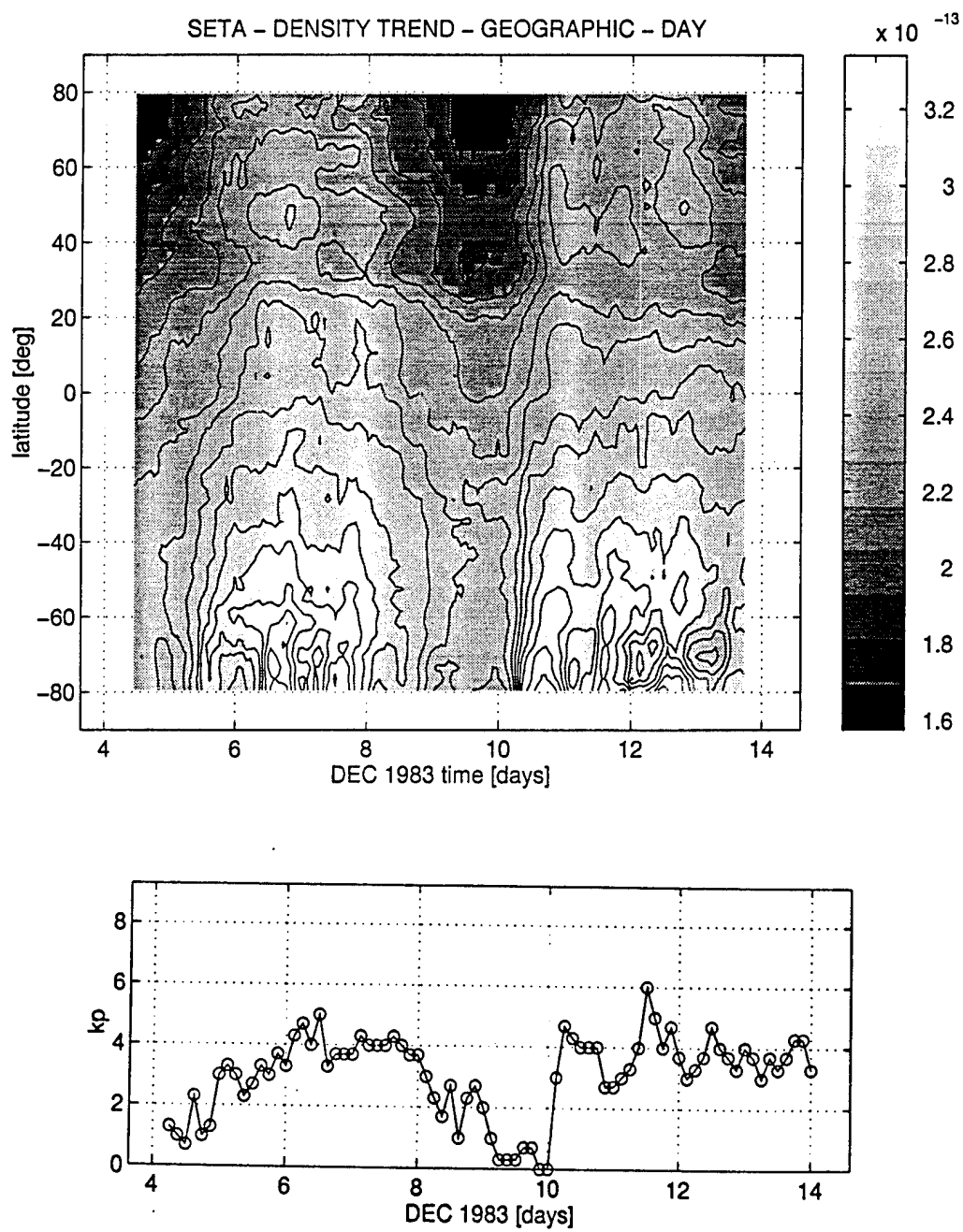


Figure 24.



Latitude Effect On Average Values

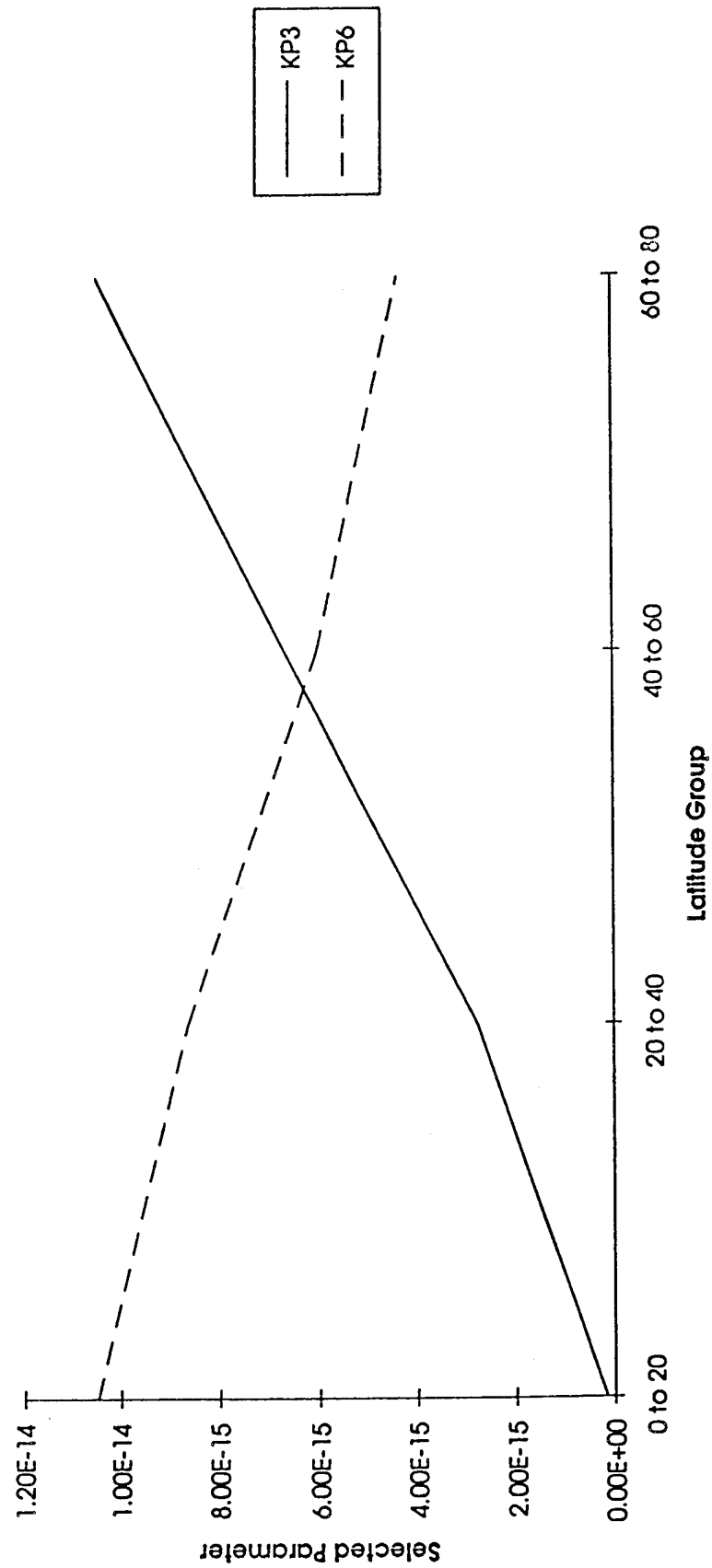


Figure 25

Figure 26.

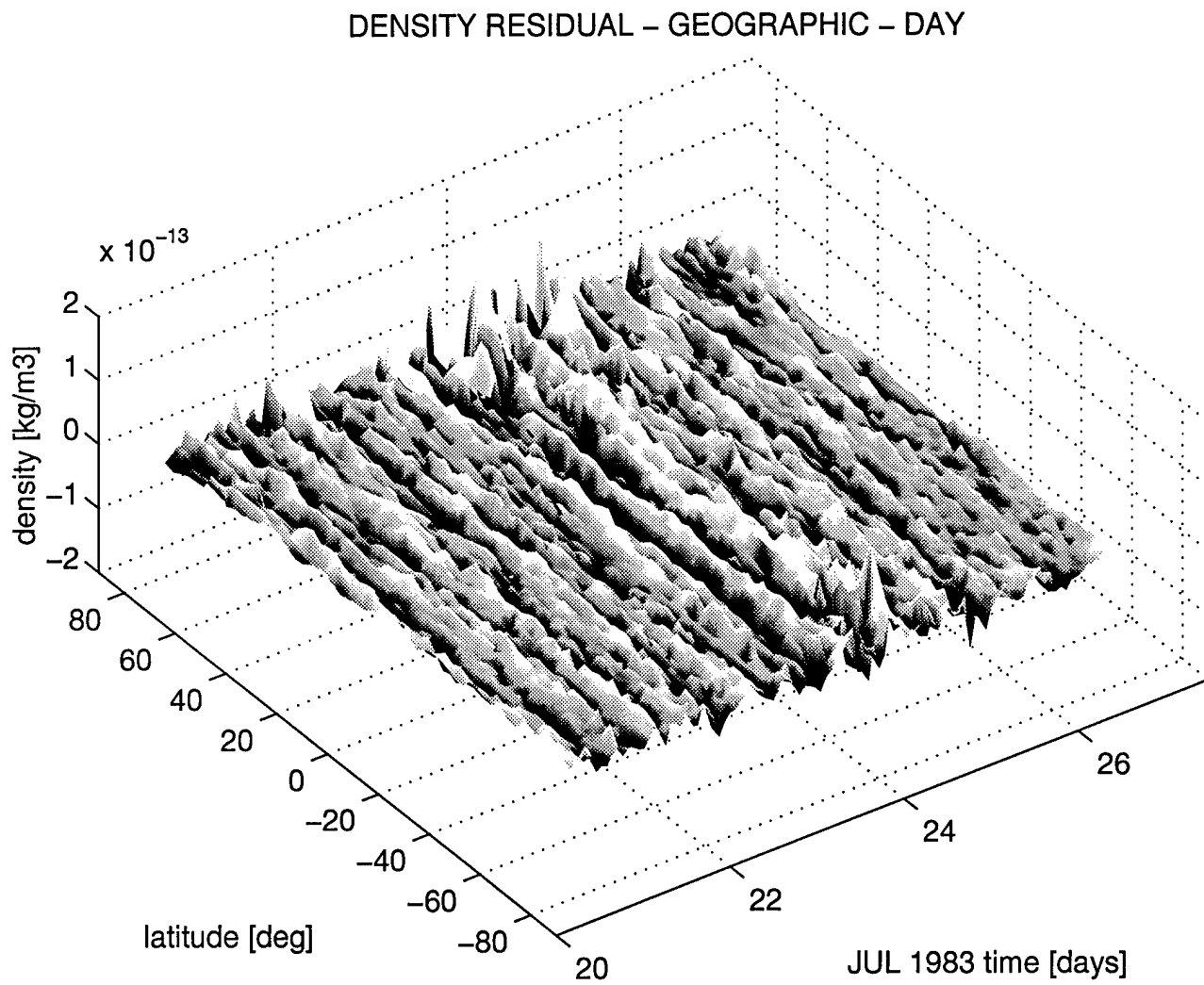


Figure 27.

DENSITY RESIDUAL(ZOOM) – GEOGRAPHIC – DAY

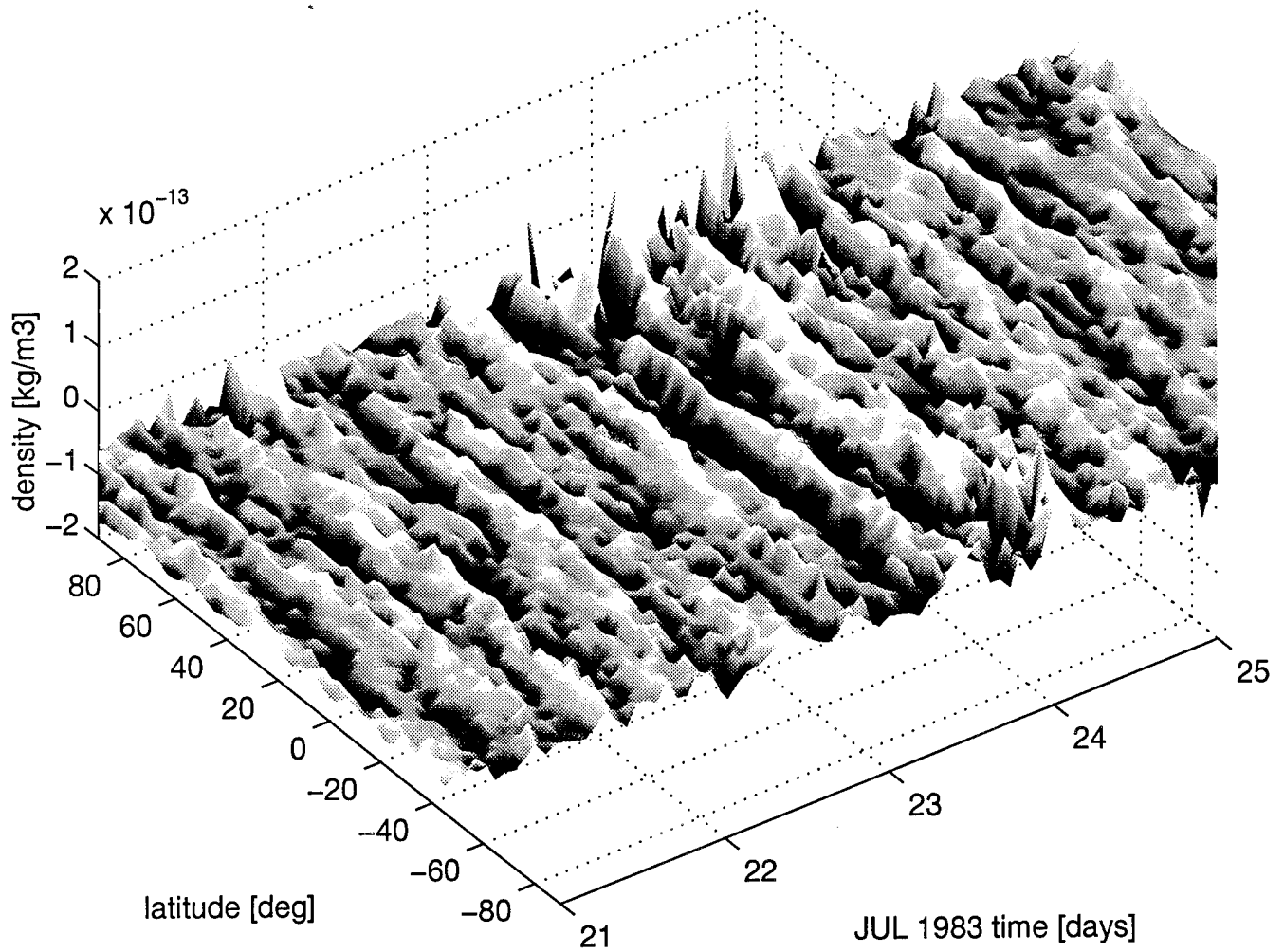


Figure 28.

